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Doctorate in Education (Ed. D)

**DEVELOPING TEACHER EDUCATORS IN
UGANDA USING A MENTORING
APPROACH: A CASE STUDY**

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29th February 2016

Note: this research took place while I was working as a volunteer on a teacher educators' education placement in Uganda. The placement was arranged by VSO for UNICEF. I am grateful for the understanding given to me by both organisations to enable me to undertake this self-funded independent study. The college in which I was based thrives under new leadership (from September 2013). Mentors and centre co-ordinating tutors (CCTs) are given pseudonyms throughout.

Abstract

This study is about intent and experience in a primary teacher education mentoring initiative in Uganda. The initiative's intent was to extend teacher educators' capacities, enabling them to improve primary education quality in all government schools across Uganda. The main research question was about how mentoring is understood in a mentoring programme to improve teacher education in Uganda. A framework is used map three constituencies: the expectations of the mentoring initiative originators as expressed through local documentation and the expectations and experiences in the initiative of mentors and co-ordinating centre tutors (CCTs). Semi-structured interviews were the main form of data collection and included twenty-eight CCTs who were based in one primary teachers college (PTC) in Eastern Uganda and fifteen international volunteer educators (mentors) based in separate PTCs across Uganda (recruited by an NGO, VSO).

The study found that mentoring is interpreted in a range of ways within the mentoring programme. These interpretations affected both sides of the mentoring relationship to different degrees and at different points in the development of the initiative. Even with the broad parity in seniority and experience of CCTs and mentors, the operationalising of the initiative resulted in mentors leading (or facilitating) the mentoring relationship. Yet the acceptance of personal professional learning in CCTs is a key phenomenon if the work is to be sustainable. The areas of challenge were the expectations of the foreign volunteer educator mentor in the placement, the impact on motivation of intermittent funding and the negotiation of productive professional relationships.

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This work represents the second of two ambitions completed. There is no accounting for someone else's dream so I thank my family and friends for their tolerance.

I dedicate this work to my children, Adam and Jerusha, to Jen and my grandchildren, and to my brothers. Ad astra.

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Map of Uganda



<https://www.gov.uk/foreign-travel-advice/uganda>

Map updated on the 30th November 2015

Glossary

BAICE	British Association for International and Comparative Education
BERA	British Education Research Association
CC	Co-ordinating centre
CCT	Co-ordinating centre tutor
CPD	Continuing professional development
CPTC	Core Primary Teachers College
DEO	District education officer
DES	Directorate of education standards
DPO	Deputy principal outreach
DPP	Deputy principal pre-service
DTE	Diploma in teacher education
EFA	Education for all
ITE	Initial teacher education
LRA	Lord's Resistance Army
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MIS	Municipal inspector of schools
MoES	Ministry of education and sports
NAPE	National Assessment of Progress in Education

NCDC	National Curriculum Development Centre
NRM	National Resistance Movement
P1 - 7	Denoting each of seven years of primary education in Uganda
PCA	Project co-ordination agreement
PST	Pre-service tutor
PTA	Parent teacher association
PTC	Primary teachers college
SMC	School management committee
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
TDMS	Teacher development and management strategy (Tanzania)
TDMS	Teacher Development and Management System (Uganda)
TIETD	Teacher and instructor education and training department
UNEB	Uganda National Examinations Board
UPE	Universal Primary Education
USAID	United States aid
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
VSO	Voluntary Service Overseas

CHAPTER 1 Introduction

This research is about expectations and assumptions and how and to what extent these are realised in a specific mentoring initiative which was part of the drive to improve the quality of primary education in all government schools across Uganda. The initiative was innovative in its use of international volunteer educators (mentors). This research focuses upon the expectations and assumptions of programme originators (UNICEF and VSO), programme deliverers (mentors) and programme participants (principally centre co-ordinating tutors - CCTs). Proposals for the mentoring initiative which is the focus of this research included two key premises. Firstly, that changing the quality of the CCTs' work would lead to improvements in primary schools and consequentially, the quality of children's education would improve (DES, TIETD, 2010). The second proposition was that the methods which had previously been used to address the quality of primary education had not worked well enough and that an alternative method, mentoring of the CCTs, should be used (DES, TIETD, 2010). If the second proposition is correct it has potential implications for the way in which quality change in primary education is addressed in Uganda and possibly in other sub-Saharan or lower income countries which face similar challenges.

Initial overview of the mentoring initiative

In 2007 Uganda had introduced a Thematic Curriculum (Altinyelken, 2010; NCDC, 2015) which required schools to teach the first three years of primary school in local language rather than English, which was previously the case. In 2009 Uganda reviewed its basic quality framework for education institutions, (MoES, 2010). The senior

education personnel who were to implement these developments, who were teacher educators of various kinds, were judged to need additional technical capacity building (DES and ITIED, 2010). One response to this was to recruit volunteer teacher educators (mentors) internationally via VSO, an international development and volunteer placement NGO. Based in primary teachers colleges (PTC) across Uganda, initially for up to two years, the mentors were to work under the direction of UNICEF (Busuulwa, 2010). The original intent was for there to be a volunteer teacher educator in all twenty-three PTCs which had an outreach capacity (out of the full national cohort of forty-five PTCs) (DES, TIETD, 2010). Having been recruited as teacher educators, the volunteers were re-designated as mentors by UNICEF, in line with the approach to securing improvement in education quality which was set out in the mentoring initiative programme proposal (DES and ITIED, 2010). This proposal identified mentoring as a key relationship between the mentors and the Ugandan primary teacher outreach tutors (CCTs) with whom they were principally to work.

The context of primary education in Uganda

In lower income countries, and certainly in sub-Saharan Africa, making a good school education available and accessible from, at least, the primary years has been a priority activity, closely related to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Education for All (EFA) agendas (UNESCO, 2014; Najjumba & Marshall, 2013; Waage, et al., 2010; Baron & Morin, 2009; Penny, et al., 2008). Over the years, there have been many programmes which have sought to address the quality of education in such countries. Yet there remains work to be done as addressing endemic low quality of primary

education requires a multi-faceted approach. There will be many contributing factors to poor outcomes for individual children and for groups of children and a range of responses (World Bank, 2015; Conn, 2014). Even with gains over the period of EFA children in many low income, sub-Saharan countries from rural homes and from poor homes are still neither attending school at all nor remaining in school for the full primary education phase (UNESCO, 2015). This study focusses on the issue of teacher education and the professional development of teacher educators through a mentoring initiative.

The rationale for the research

My interest in this research began in June 2011 when I arrived in Uganda as a volunteer teacher educator. I had been recruited from England by VSO for a teacher educator initiative led by UNICEF. I had been accepted to begin the Ed. D programme in May 2012. I had intended to research whether, or to what extent, equalities policies with which I was familiar in England (which were geared to raising the attainment of minority ethnic pupils) were applicable in a black African country. At my first meeting with UNICEF, six days after I arrived in Uganda, I was told that the placement title had changed to 'mentor'. I had had no prior professional experience as a mentor. At that time, I understood the change from teacher educator to mentor to be a conceptual shift, intended to convey a way in which the work should happen. I was not sure that I could be a mentor. I was not sure what a mentor really was. I thought that it would be a highly personal activity which would require a depth of relationship development which I had not sought. I felt a real caution about how an outsider to most aspects of

Uganda and its primary teacher educator system could take the role that I imagined to be that of a mentor with any confidence or credibility.

There were expected project results for the mentoring initiative. These had been jointly agreed through the Government of Uganda Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES) and with UNICEF. Some of these expected results were included in the volunteer educators' placement outline. The results framework for the initiative included improvements in standards in all Ugandan primary schools, improvements in teacher and pupil attendance and a reduction in the rate of pupil dropout. Access to this information, which I had not had in full prior to arriving in Uganda, increased my concern about my ability to do the mentor role in which I found myself.

In my early months in post I became increasingly involved in personal interpretation and re-interpretation of the work. It was that personal exploration which I wanted to take further. The research questions were constructed to allow for exploration of expectations and assumptions implicit in the mentoring initiative. The questions also allow for exploration of the views and experiences of two main groups of people: those who were brought to the initiative as international volunteer educator/mentors and Ugandan nationals who were primary teacher educators (CCTs).

The main research question, which contributes towards understanding whether mentoring can be a useful professional development strategy in the drive to secure quality primary education in Uganda, is:

How is mentoring understood in an initiative to improve teacher education in Uganda?

This is addressed through three supplementary questions:

- a. What are the expectations of mentors and CCTs in a primary teacher educators' mentoring initiative in Uganda?
- b. What is the work of mentors and CCTs in a primary teacher educators' mentoring initiative in Uganda?
- c. What do mentors and CCTs understand by success in mentoring?

Uganda, primary educators and mentoring

The context for education in Uganda is complex. Research and reports show a history of turmoil which is interwoven with compelling political will to transform the educational (and the future economic and social landscape) by ensuring that all primary age children are in school and educated (Cunningham, 2014; Najjumba & Marshall, 2013; Penny, et al., 2008; MISR, 2009). The mechanisms to achieve this have been successful in a number of ways: there is much increased pupil registration, the teacher supply has increased and more teachers are qualified (UNESCO, 2015; Ezenne, 2012). There is in place a delivery system for continuing professional development (CPD), school management development and community mobilisation (GOU and EDP, 2010; MoES, 2000). The new cohort of staff, the centre co-ordinating tutors, have been at the forefront of securing these changes but, as time has passed, other areas needed attention and other needs have arisen. Mentoring, which was part of the CCT

role, was instituted ‘to help the teacher perform better in their jobs and improve performance in primary schools’ (BEPS, n.d., p. 32).

One area for improvement was to ensure that CCTs, and others who are directly involved in primary teacher quality in Uganda, have the skills to do their work (UNESCO, 2014; Uwezo Uganda, 2014; DES and ITIED, 2010; Winkler & Sondergaard, 2007) (Winkler & Sondergaard, 2007). The long-game is for CCTs’ work to be effective enough to raise the quality of teaching in schools leading to improvements in pupils’ achievement and outcomes. Mentoring, which is intended to bring about professional and personal change, is also a personal and an interpersonal activity (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007). It requires insight into, knowledge of and openness to the circumstance of the other. These points are explored within the research through analysis of mentors’ and CCTs’ work in the mentoring initiative, their expectations, activity and notions of success.

1.1 Outline of the thesis

Chapter 2 focuses on two main themes: primary education in post-independence Uganda and mentoring in education. The need to improve the quality of Uganda’s primary schools is demonstrated through pupils’ continuing poor academic outcomes (Uwezo Uganda, 2014; 2012). The chapter looks at some of the factors which were implicated in the drive to improve these outcomes. It develops further the discussion about responding to those outcomes through working with primary teacher educators. The chapter surveys a range of mentoring relationships and contexts and concludes

that a firm definition of mentoring is less important than clarity about what was expected by the mentoring initiative. A framework (Dawson, 2014; 2010) is identified which assists with securing this clarity.

In **chapter 3** the methodology for the research is explored. This is a qualitative study which takes place in a setting where there is considerable variation in research participants' genders, ages, backgrounds, nationalities, ethnicities and first languages. The challenges that this presents are set out alongside the rationale for using case study with ethnographic aspects. The issues which related to identifying participants and collecting data are considered alongside the intercultural nature of the research ground and the effect of this interweaving on the logistics of data collection. A mentoring framework is considered which can assist with designing and specifying a mentoring model (Dawson, 2014; 2010).

In **chapter 4** Dawson's mentoring framework (Dawson, 2014; 2010) is used to map the initiative. Information from CCTs and mentors' interviews is mapped against the resulting information. Specific elements from the framework are explored in depth: objectives, resources and tools and rewards. Three persistent discovered themes are explored: what is expected of volunteers, how CCTs saw their own professionalism and financing – views from mentors and CCTs. There is a consideration of relationships within the mentoring initiative and about the advantages and limitations of the data analysis process.

Chapter 5 discusses the research findings and how they relate to the research questions. It considers aspects of the research which would need to be reviewed if this work were to be repeated. The chapter sets out what implications the research suggests for policy and practice at a range of levels. There is an account of the next steps which could be taken to build on this study.

CHAPTER 2 Literature review

This chapter provides the contextual framing of the research. It begins with an account of the Uganda-based mentoring initiative on which this research focuses. It moves on to focus on aspects of the Ugandan primary education sector since independence in 1962 but particularly since the introduction of Universal Primary Education (UPE) (Ezenne, 2012; MoES, 2004) in 1997 to 2016. The chapter describes a complex context for the development of quality primary education in Uganda. There is little research about mentoring in teacher education in Uganda with concomitant impact on the availability of directly applicable literature. A section on mentoring and mentoring relationships drawn mainly from international literature on mentoring in education is also provided.

2.1 Primary teacher educators' improvement programme: mentoring initiative

The mode of teacher education which was expected to predominate within the improvement programme was mentoring, although the initiative proposal has no explicit definition of mentoring or of coaching which could show the similarities and points of divergence between mentoring and coaching (MoES, 2010). The draft proposal for the initiative introduced it as 'mentoring/coaching' (DES and ITIED, 2010). It stated that, as opposed to the more familiar or usual workshop mode of workshop-based training,

‘the most effective training approach is workplace based capacity building and sustained mentoring and coaching’ (2010, pp. 8-9)

The proposals for the mentoring initiative were developed prior to recruitment of the volunteer educators who were to bring their specialist technical skills to the initiative. The placement outline (Busuulwa, 2010) which was the main volunteer recruitment document included information from the draft proposal. The final mentoring initiative proposal more clearly signposted the mentoring role in the draft work plan by including it as an explicit task for volunteer educators (DES and ITIED, 2010). This updated information was not available to volunteer educators prior to taking up the placement. In Uganda, workshop-style training for teacher educators and other education staff typically involved a residential programme, running for several days and which brought together staff from several educational institutions for syndicated or cascaded training¹. There is doubt about the value of workshops, whether there is a financial benefit in continuing to run one-off workshops which have no follow-up and,

‘rarely lead to effective development and implementation of reforms they are intended to enable’ (DES and ITIED, 2010, p. 10)

This poor outcome is suggested to be because the workshops may have trainers who are not effective as they are using processes and methods which do not work well enough:

‘CCTs receive training on the various new MoES initiatives, strategies, reforms and policies to enable them to support teachers and head teachers to

¹ Syndicated training: same agreed programme to all participants. Cascaded training: there are levels at which the training is offered and there is an expectation for each level to train the next level or group.

implement them. This training has relied mostly on one approach – the workshop approach, with mostly once off short workshops of variable quality and conducted by trainers who may themselves not be very good trainers and have also received inadequate or ineffective training’ (DES and ITIED, 2010, p. 8)

The draft proposal asserts that repeat funding of workshops and lost opportunity costs need to be taken into account when the finances of running workshops are compared with cyclical and sustained mentoring or coaching (DES and ITIED, 2010). International teacher educators were identified (DES and ITIED, 2010) as professionals who would ‘address the key issue of technical capacity among inspectors, CCTs and PTC tutors’ (DES and ITIED, 2010, p. 14) and needed to be ‘expert’ (DES and ITIED, 2010, p. 10).

While based at a CPTC this was not to be the workplace:

‘[Teacher educators’] workplace[s] would not be a training venue, but will rather be the primary schools that they visit on a daily basis as they work with mentor/coach, CCTs and inspectors and the PTCs’ (DES and ITIED, 2010, p. 14)

Teacher educators were expected to undertake explicit ‘coaching/mentoring/support supervision for CCTs and DIS/MIS’ (DES and ITIED, 2010, p. 21) which would include joint school visiting, lesson observation, observing CCTs facilitating workshops at co-ordinating centre schools and giving them feedback ‘on how to improve their practices’ (DES and ITIED, 2010, p. 21). The mentoring initiative argued for securing the services of international teacher educators whose ‘expertise is not currently available in Uganda, in particular in the areas of effective literacy and numeracy strategies’ (DES and ITIED, 2010, p. 14). Of ‘critical importance’ (DES and ITIED, 2010,

p. 10) to the success of the intended activities were securing a teacher educator cadre with 'excellent coaching/mentoring skills' (2010, p. 10), who would be:

'excellent primary practitioners and professionally qualified primary teachers with primary teaching, primary teacher education and coaching/mentoring and monitoring and support supervision experience' (DES and ITIED, 2010, p. 17)

The initiative had challenging ambitions for what it should achieve including improvements to pupils' academic achievements, their attendance rates and reductions in corporal punishment in all government primary schools (Appendix 1).

The rationale for the initiative was sound. It was addressing the stagnation in effective improvement practice which would not be changed by doing things in the same way as before (Uwezo Uganda, 2014). The initiative had to respond to two challenges to change. The first challenge was to implement a specific piece of education policy (DES and ITIED, 2010; MoES, 2010) which was intended to make every school have in place the systems, features and processes which would encourage quality education. The second challenge for the initiative was to improve the professional activities of primary teacher educators who were considered as influential in securing teaching and learning quality in the field. The judgement about focussing the initiative on mentoring as a delivery mode is not immediately as secure. This is because there was no discussion about how mentoring, as an approach, was to differ in practice from previous practice improvement work with Ugandan teacher educators, whether within a workshop structure or not.

2.2 Uganda: a backdrop to the development of primary phase education

I suggest that as much as it is important to know about mentoring and mentoring relationships it is also important to know about Uganda and its primary education context. This is both to inform the reader and to make clearer the depth of the backstory which I, as a volunteer educator and, later, as a mentor/researcher gradually learned about and worked within. Located in East Africa, landlocked Uganda was a British Protectorate from 1894 until it gained its independence and became a sovereign state in 1962 (Ezenne, 2012; British Library, n.d.). Until 1974 the education system remained much as it had prior to independence, modelled on the British tripartite system (Ezenne, 2012; Viko, 2012). The economic basis of the country faltered in the 1970's and education quality was affected and 'deteriorated substantially' (Liang, 2002, p. 10).

The context for the current Ugandan primary and teacher education system is one which includes the influence of British colonialism, Ugandan regime change and the aftermath of civil war and armed insurgency (GOU and EDP, 2010) while being a low income and developing country and, at periods, a fragile state. These contextual features have a continuing impact on the Ugandan primary and primary teacher education system today. In recent years Uganda was aiming to meet the time bound Millennium Development Goals (MDG) which included the establishment of Universal Primary Education (UPE) (Millenium Project, 2006; UN, 2005). The section begins by looking at post-independence Uganda, the state of the economy and its impact on the primary education sector. Challenges such as the long-standing insurgency led by the

Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) meant that post-independence Uganda did not transform contemporaneously into post-conflict Uganda. The effect of conflict on the development of a secure education system is considered. The section includes accounts of the policy responses to the state of primary and teacher education in Uganda including the introduction of the Teacher Development and Management System (TDMS), the introduction of UPE and its repercussions, and the establishment of CCTs as the outreach arm of core primary teacher colleges (CPTC).

Post-independence education in Uganda

From 1962 to 1986 Uganda experienced considerable upheavals, the years from 1971 to 1986 found Uganda being characterised as 'one of Africa's most notorious killing fields' (Carson, 2005, p. 3). Uganda had ten presidents from independence to 1986 with country leadership moving from elected rule to military rule. The current incumbent, Yoweri Museveni, came into power in 1986. Museveni's National Resistance Movement (NRM) took power after a bitter bush war (1981 to 1986) led by its military arm, the National Resistance Army (NRA). By 1986 Uganda had 'a dilapidated economy' (Ruganda, 2005, p. 27) with inflation at 240% and just a third of the school aged population on roll (Ruganda, 2005). Government expenditure on education as a percentage of the Gross National Product (GNP) was 4.1% in 1970 dropping to 1.2% in 1990 compared with comparable figures for sub-Saharan Africa of 3.0% and 4.0% respectively (Liang, 2002, p. 12). From the 1970s the Ugandan education system deteriorated until it reached a crisis position in the mid-1990s, 'where the education system had virtually collapsed and less than half of the primary teachers were trained' (Hartwell, et al., 2003, p. 31).

Between 1988 and 2006 an internal violent insurgency led by the LRA disrupted day-to-day life of particularly, although not solely, the populations of northern Uganda (Cunningham, 2014). The repercussions arising from this insurgency were considerable, with psycho-social problems born of displacement and fear, disrupted social and traditional learning structures as well as the physical destruction of homes, gardens (farms) and villages (Cunningham, 2014; Harris, 2012). Primary education became discontinuous or unavailable for many children in the north and the east of the country, even those who had previously had access. A Uganda Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES) report identified the education system as being in a 'poor state' due to the 'chaotic administrations of 1971-1986' (MoES, 2000, p. 14):

'characterised by such deficiencies as:

- Utter neglect of educational institutions and the erosion of quality at all levels;
- Under resourcing of essential facilities:
- Lack of provision of instructional materials;
- Preponderance of untrained teachers, estimated at 60%;
- Low teacher morale and high absenteeism;
- Rigid teacher training requirements;
- A high percentage of education costs shouldered by parents;
- High dropout rate of girls from school;
- Poor management and accountability.'

(MoES, 2000, p. 15).

This represented a considerable agenda for change. Winkler and Sondergaard (2007) summarise the position in their report into the efficiency of Uganda's education system:

'Uganda has done an admirable job of increasing access to primary education over the past decade. However, increased access has come at the expense of the quality of instruction. International evidence generally shows that improvements in quality—in terms of student knowledge—are more strongly related to economic growth than are improvements in access. Uganda needs to make a **very serious effort to improve quality** at all levels, while maintaining its impressive accomplishments with respect to coverage. Improvements in internal efficiency can help Uganda achieve both quality and quantity.' (Winkler & Sondergaard, 2007, p. 5)(original emphases).

The challenges of quality teaching, pupil attendance and pupil achievement

Introduced in 1997, the drive towards securing free universal primary education offered all families the opportunity for all or some of their children to be educated, as a right (Altinyelken, 2010; Nakabugo, 2008; Penny, et al., 2008). The Uganda teacher cohort, as a group, remains prone to high levels of absenteeism with 21% of teachers being absent on the Uwezo 2014 survey day (Uwezo Uganda, 2014).² The percentage of pupils completing primary school rose from 40% (2000) to 44% (2007) but only about 11% of pupils acquired basic learning levels (UNESCO, 2014) and learning quality

² Uwezo undertakes annual national household surveys in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda which use simple tools to assess children's actual levels of literacy and numeracy (Uwezo, 2012a)

amongst the poor declined from an already low rate between 2004 and 2007 with Uganda reported as facing ‘a serious triple challenge, needing to strengthen access, quality and equity’ (UNESCO, 2014).

Summarising the findings of World Bank, UNESCO and its own reports, Uwezo Uganda pointed to ‘dismal learning outcomes in basic literacy and numeracy’ (Uwezo Uganda, 2014, p. 7). Uwezo reports figures from the Uganda National Examinations Board (UNEB) which show 1,897,114 pupils beginning in P1³ in 2008. By 2014 there were only 585,863 children taking the summative Primary Leaving Examination (PLE) at the end of P7⁴ of whom 68,760 failed (Uwezo Uganda, 2014). It is not possible to enrol in a secondary school in Uganda without a P7 pass so the PLE has an important gate-keeping function, limiting or allowing access to secondary education.

Unsatisfactory teaching quality and an over-reliance on content are issues which affect sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) as a whole. Akyeampong et al (2013) identify pre-service training as the priority for raising standards in primary education in SSA. Murphy and Wolfenden (2013) locate a response to the need to improve teacher quality across the region in a pedagogy of mutuality which uses teacher educators and teachers as brokers working at local level with adapted materials. Uganda has sought to improve

³ P1: primary 1 is the first year of primary education in Uganda. Children can enter P1 when they are five.

⁴ P7: primary 7 is the last year of primary education in Uganda. The intended age for entry is eleven.

its educational shortcomings on several levels (Penny, et al., 2008) including work on teacher education.

2.2.1 Universal Primary Education (UPE) and some of its implications for the Ugandan primary education sector

With the introduction of UPE the stresses to the primary education system became even more acute than had previously been the case (Nakabugo, 2008; Penny, et al., 2008). Initially UPE brought free primary education for four children in each family (and explicitly included girl children and disabled children) (Chabbott, 2010). This restriction on numbers was later abandoned and all children became eligible for free primary schooling. The immediate result was that government primary schools were overwhelmed by parents registering their children.

Large classes and teacher supply

This high level of pupil registration has continued with a gross intake rate to primary education of 143%⁵ in 2011 (94% net) (UNESCO, 2014). Class sizes rose considerably with classes of up to 300 children (MoES, 2004, p. 14) being recorded in some instances. An average pupil: teacher ratio of 48:1 in 2011 represented a drop from 57:1 in 1999 (UNESCO, 2014) and was reported as 46:1 in 2013 (The World Bank, 2015). These figures mask considerable variation as urban schools tended to have lower teacher pupil ratios than rural schools. The schools' rural nature made already

⁵ Multiple registration, pupils being registered at more than one school at the same time, might contribute to this abundance of registered pupils.

scarce services either more scarce or more arduous to get access to and there could be a heightened residual sense of insecurity or danger (especially for women teachers) from being in such remote locations (Mulkeen & Chen, 2008). Significantly, ‘many teachers would rather leave teaching than work in hard-to-reach areas’ (MoES, 2004, p. 22) and such areas ‘continue to be underserved’ (MoES, 2004, p. 22).

Teaching quality, skills and knowledge

The teacher supply situation exacerbated the class size issue in some locations. Of themselves, large classes which can be found in many Ugandan primary schools do not lead to pupil underperformance (O'Sullivan, 2006). One response might be to develop better ways of managing large classes than to secure smaller class sizes (Nakabugo, 2008). Nakabugo quotes teachers’ views after they had had the opportunity to try new strategies for working with large classes. The teachers conveyed that they had a fundamentally different perception of what constituted the problem and that they misunderstood a teaching strategy which might have improved the outcomes for pupils (Nakabugo, 2008). This suggests that interpretation might be holding back practice implementation.

The relatively modest educational qualifications needed for entry to the two-year primary teacher training course leaves emerging trained teachers having gaps in their knowledge about key curriculum subject areas (SABER, 2012) which primary teacher college (PTC) courses have not yet addressed. UNEB, which oversees Uganda’s national examinations, recommended that teachers and PTC tutors be retrained on

how to teach reading and writing, how to interpret the curriculum and its assessment and how to use assessment to improve pupils' learning (UNEB, 2012).

Training for teaching and teacher capability

In a pressured system (as set out earlier) the Ugandan government resolved to increase the number and proportion of qualified staff in schools. This was largely secured through the Teacher Education and Management System (TDMS) (Hartwell, et al., 2003; MoES, 2000). This drive is in line with other countries across sub-Saharan Africa. Marphata et al. (2010) reported a participatory primary outcomes improvement project which took place in Burundi, Malawi, Senegal and Uganda. Pupil outcomes, teacher qualifications and training data were collected. Their research report notes decreasing numbers of unqualified teachers and increasing numbers of undertrained or teachers with time-limited contracts. They also noted with some ambivalence the increased incidence of undertrained or temporary staff and conceded that while recruiting local staff might bring specific benefits there remained a need to make sure that staff received professional training as the teachers lack 'training and expertise in pedagogy, skills and knowledge' (Marphatia, et al., 2010, p. 7).

Although remaining moderate by international standards or by the standard required to train as a secondary school teacher in Uganda (Kagoda & Ezati, 2013; Hardman, et al., 2011) the qualifications needed to enter training as a primary teacher have been raised. The requirement now is completion of lower secondary education (eleven years in school), gaining O levels in six specified subjects and leading to a teaching

certificate after a two-year course. Kadoga and Ezati's (2013) small qualitative study on the contribution of primary teacher education to quality primary education in Uganda considers that the usual age of entry of students (seventeen) to primary initial teacher education (ITE) is problematic. They find the quality of ITE students wanting and their motives questionable as:

'in Uganda majority of the students seeking admission to PTC are mainly those who have either failed to get the required grades to join higher education of two years, or don't have the tuition fees for the next two years secondary education' (sic) (Kagoda & Ezati, 2013, p. 37) .

There is contention over whether teachers' professional qualifications affect pupil outcomes. Ugandan primary teachers' qualifications have been positively linked with the achievement of their pupils (de Kemp & Eilor, 2008) but Najjumba and Marshall (2013) challenge the strength of this connection in their more recent large-scale, quantitative study on improving learning in Uganda which used the 2006 to 2011 datasets from the National Assessment of Progress in Education (NAPE). The latter study found that while teacher qualification has a positive impact on pupil performance it is at a negligibly low level of statistical significance and 'points to low teacher effectiveness' (Najjumba & Marshall, 2013, p. 62). Looking at the length of the teachers' time in service they concluded that:

'for primary-level content knowledge—no experiential learning is taking place, meaning that teachers who are exposed to this content for longer periods of time are not able to answer more test questions than their counterparts with less experience' (Najjumba & Marshall, 2013, p. 81)

The minimal impact on pupil outcomes of teacher qualification level takes us back to the interpretation of aspects of teaching strategy and the retention of teachers' personal learning. Until 2013 the Ugandan curriculum for initial primary teacher education allocated over twice as many hours to teaching methodology as it did to mathematics, English and science combined (UNESCO, 2014). This suggests that if the curriculum were thoroughly taught and learned emerging qualified primary teachers would know to teach but would not be so versed in what to teach. Evidence of primary pupils' learning outcome levels would call even this assertion into question (Najjumba & Marshall, 2013). Based on the qualifications required for entering primary teacher training the area which needed to be supported was trainee teachers' pedagogy. In practice, candidates' mastery of English, mathematics and science, could not be assured. This suggests that the content of the PTC curriculum was not being taught or learned effectively or that emerging qualified teachers ignored the pedagogical content of their training once they began to teach in their own classrooms. This might be part of the explanation for a systematic review of teacher attendance in developing countries (Guerrero, et al., 2012) found that where there were interventions to improve teachers' attendance in class any positive impact on pupils' attainment came early in the intervention and then tailed off. The sole fact of the teacher being in the classroom and teaching did not, of itself, improve pupils' attainment over time.

Mutazindwa et al., from the Uganda Directorate of Education Standards (DES), reported that outreach tutors were being used to support the pre-service work in

colleges, which meant that they were not supporting change in outreach. They predicted that unless college tutors received support:

‘they will continue to teach in the old traditional teacher centered way. The New Curriculum will then become an ‘innovation without change’ and a great opportunity to change primary school teaching for the better will have been lost.’ (Mutazindwa, et al., 2013, p. 4)

Kagoda and Ezati (2013) in their study which looked at the extent to which the PTC curriculum was fit for purpose, asserted that PTC tutors (teacher educators) in Uganda were poorly qualified, were not graduates and that they were ‘sometimes challenged by teacher trainees who join colleges with higher qualifications, with deeper knowledge and wider content knowledge’ (Kagoda & Ezati, 2013, p. 37) .

Kagoda et al.’s critique of PTC tutors implies that being a graduate teacher trainer is linked with additional relevant professional competence. A counter viewpoint is that teachers of teacher educators are not necessarily experienced in teacher education or in primary teaching (O’Sullivan, 2010) and that being a university lecturer does not mitigate this. A ‘knowledge and professional vacuum’ (O’Sullivan, 2010, p. 386) left school practice supervisors unprepared for the mentoring task, which alongside research and enquiry skills, were of high importance for teacher educators. There was ‘a capacity gap’ (O’Sullivan, 2010, p. 386) amongst the cohort who train the teacher educators. There is a dearth of practical direction from research or reports about what should done to improve teaching quality other than that which is essentially doing what has been done before and expecting a different result (Mutazindwa, et al., 2013).

The mentoring initiative appears to deviate from this habit by:

- accepting the evidence that there are weaknesses in teaching quality in Uganda's primary schools and in its primary teacher education
- identifying a specific cadre of staff (CCTs) who are key to improvements
- placing CCTs and their development at the centre of the initiative

2.2.2 The Thematic Curriculum

In 2007 the national Thematic Curriculum, for years P1 to P7 was introduced to schools before the revised primary teacher education curriculum (see above) had been introduced into PTCs (JICA and IDCJ, 2012; GOU and EDP, 2010). The curriculum was intended to have 'a much greater emphasis on the development of literacy, numeracy and key life skills' (Read & Enyutu, 2004, p. para. 1.2). Teachers already in school who had attended training on the Thematic Curriculum training judged that they had had insufficient training to enable them to put the new curriculum into place (GOU and EDP, 2010; Altinyelken, 2010). Pupils taught using the Thematic Curriculum were reported to be even less accomplished at reading local language texts than English texts, even though the curriculum is taught in local language (Uwezo Uganda, 2014).

2.2.3 Teacher Development and Management System (TDMS)

The conditions which encourage inadequate quality teaching share similarities across developing countries and sub-Saharan Africa (Mhando, 2006). These include inadequately educated staff, ITE which emphasises theory and subject knowledge, minimal emphasis on pedagogy for participation and active learning, demoralised teaching force, low level

resourcing in school, and assessment which supports simple recall of rote-learned information⁶. Within SSA the need to improve education quality was not confined to Uganda nor were the suggested solutions. Major partners worked with countries in sub-Saharan Africa on a range of schemes aimed at bringing about sustained change, typically addressing teacher and teacher educator improvement (Mena Report, 2012) with a focus on producing quality teachers, implementing quality pedagogy in schools and securing suitable resources. Some programmes incorporated securing children's healthcare, nutrition and improved parental involvement (Conn, 2014). Conn's meta-analysis found that the greatest gains in pupils' attainment were found where teaching methods and teacher coaching were central and that there were gains to pupils' cognitive skills after specific health-related programmes (e.g. malaria control) (Conn, 2014).

This section focusses on one of Uganda's key education improvement programmes, the Teacher Development and Management System (TDMS). Uganda was not alone in seeking to put into place a comprehensive education plan like TDMS which had, at its core, improving the quality of teaching. By way of comparison, the section also refers to quality education development in Tanzania, one of the five countries which shares a border with Uganda.

There was a continuing need to improve the quality of education in Ugandan schools by improving pre-service and in-service teacher education and teacher education pedagogy (Verspoor, 2008). Pre-dating the drive towards UPE, a key strategy to

⁶ Rote learning is one of a range of learning skills which can be used. The issues are range and appropriateness: the opportunity for teachers to teach in a range of ways and for pupils to learn in a range of ways and then to know when and how best to apply what is learned.

address some of the existing challenges was the Teacher Development and Management System (TDMS) (Hartwell, et al., 2003) which began in 1994 (Ministry of Education and Sports, 2000). The programme was conceived as part of the outcomes of the Education Policy Review Commission and was characterised as in 'its conception...undeniably Ugandan' (MoES, 2000). There were three main levels of operation to the TDMS: national (linked directly with the requirements of the education ministry); district (working through CPTCs and local (working via newly-constituted co-ordinating centres each with an allied model school (MoES, 2000; SABER, 2012). The TDMS established priorities and a delivery structure for the continuing professional development of serving primary teachers and primary school managers in what is a considerably decentralised education system (MoES, 2000). The TDMS focused on improving teachers' terms and conditions of service, improving community participation in primary education, putting into place a resource allocation system for instructional materials and on strengthening teacher education (pre-service, in-service and management) (MoES, 2000). The TDMS was well funded and had high prestige (MoES, 2000).

Tanzania introduced two pertinent programmes which were aimed at specific education improvement: the Tutors' Education Programme (TEP) and the Teachers' Development and Management Strategy (TDMS). The TEP aimed to improve the quality of teacher educators' work, introducing participatory teaching and active learning. The strength of the TEP was that it recognised the gaps and areas for development in teacher educators' education. Previously the tacit understanding was that by virtue of their qualifications teacher educators would be able to teach student teachers effectively (MoEVT, 2007; Mhando, 2006). The Tanzania TDMS

began in 2008 and built on the Primary Education Development Plan⁷ and Secondary Education Development Plan⁸ (MoEVT, 2007). The TDMS concentrated on capacity building, teachers' working environment, teacher motivation and rewards and on working with higher education providers (MoEVT, 2007; Mhando, 2006). The Tanzania TDMS accepted that teachers were a key variable in assuring pupils' attainment (Niwagaba & Okurot-Ibore, 2014; Moulton, 2000). It also accepted that in developing countries variations in out-of-school conditions were not effective indicators of pupils' success in school (Niwagaba & Okurot-Ibore, 2014; MoEVT, 2007). The solutions were to be found mainly in the school. 'Great mastery of subject matter' (MoEVT, 2007) was noted as the prerequisite to quality education but not the sole determinant. This position begs the question about the place of pedagogy in system improvement in schools (Conn, 2014; Koomba, et al., 2013). In using the term 'strategy' instead of 'system' the TDMS characterised 'strategy' as being suitably militaristic in tone, as a war was being faced (MoEVT, 2007) and the outcome of the war would be:

'a comprehensive, holistic, and all encompassing programme for attracting, obtaining, training, developing, and retaining adequate and high quality teachers and managers for all levels and aspects of the education system.' (MoEVT, 2007, p. 7)

The school improvement drive would necessarily be located in school and its related institutions and systems. The Tanzania TDMS had as its end game the improvement of pupil outcomes through improving the quality of school teaching and the school environment. Its terms of reference included a commitment to address the training and development of teacher educators, education managers and administrators (MoEVT, 2007). There was also a requirement to ensure that there were sufficient, high quality teacher education tutors (MoEVT, 2007) who were teaching the necessary subject or specialist areas (MoEVT, 2007). Its

⁷ Began 2001.

⁸ Began 2004.

implementation was accompanied by concern from two key parties: teacher education tutors and student teachers. Its emphasis on tutors' professional development was viewed askance by education inspectors (who had not had this updated training) and by the student teachers, who were finding that these approaches were not being used in practice schools (Hardman, et al., 2012; Mhando, 2006).

The Uganda TDMS is significant for this study. It created the role of the CCT as the main delivery mechanism for enabling community mobilisation, training untrained serving teachers and training head teachers in leadership, child-centred education and team working (Hartwell, et al., 2003). Prior to this PTCs had no outreach function, their task being limited to ITE (Figure 1).

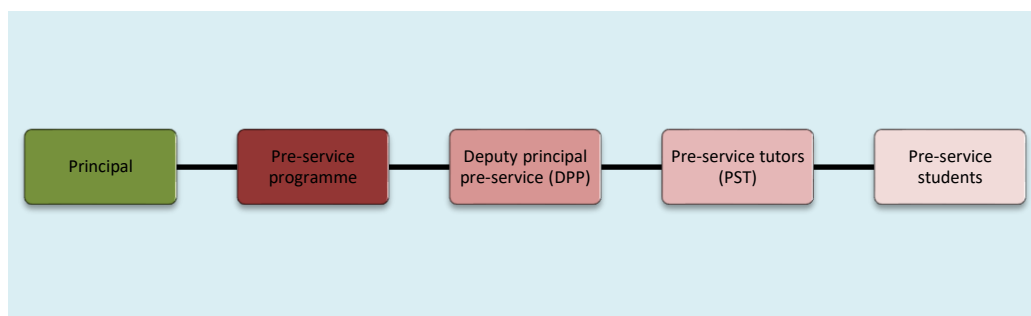


Figure 1: primary teachers college (PTC) - simplified professional structure - pre-TDMS

As a result of TDMS twenty-three of forty-seven government colleges were selected to become CPTCs; the others (as well as the two private PTCs) remained with a brief for ITE only (Figure 2).

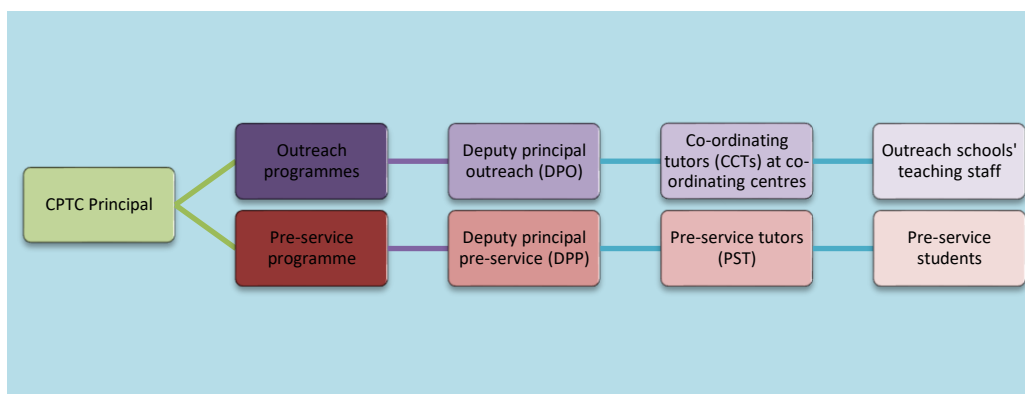


Figure 2: core primary teachers college (CPTC) – simplified professional structure with pre-service and outreach departments

CCTs were appointed from the pre-existing cadre of PTC tutors. They were assigned to a core primary teachers college (CPTC) with a newly created outreach function (MoES, 2000). Overall school improvement remained the responsibility of the head teacher and the SMC. CCTs were intended to lead continued professional development. School inspection was the strategic responsibility of the Department of Education Standards (DES) and was operationally devolved to districts and municipalities. The creation of a CCT cadre to be the bridge between college and school represents an essential difference in approach between Uganda's TDMS and Tanzania's TDMS. The Tanzania TDMS asks for excellent practitioners (teachers and tutors) to be identified. Sharing their professional excellence, including mentoring, would be part of their work (MoEVT, 2007). What is not set out in the Tanzania TDMS is what might excellence be, who recognises it and what happens to the excellent practitioner's substantive role except that such 'super model teachers' be funded to 'act as mentors, master teachers and facilitators in inservice training programmes' (MoEVT, 2007, p. 26). There is no explicit strategic objective within the strategy linked with this aspiration (MoEVT, 2007). In CCTs, Uganda had identified a new, dedicated cadre of staff to take the school improvement work forward.

CPTC's education staffing was increased (Figure 2), with CCTs to provide in the field professional support and guidance to serving teachers. There was a deputy principal outreach (DPO) as line manager. CCTs were trained, with college principals, at nationally organised training for the CCT role, (Outreach Tutor Training Certificate). This focus on the professional development of both CCTs and PTC principals, allied to the aim that all tutors and principals would be graduates (MoES, 2000), implied an ambitious intent and ambitious direction by the national government for the TDMS.

Through the targeted work of CCTs, the TDMS' objective to increase the number of certified teachers in post was successful. Prior to 1997, about a half of serving teachers were qualified. By 2004 the percentage had risen to 80% (MoES, 2004) which was a considerable achievement as the overall number of teachers had increased by nearly 45,000 over the same period. By 2011 90% of primary phase teachers were professionally qualified (UNESCO, 2014) and a second TDMS emphasis was evolving, that of providing professional development to the general primary teaching cohort (Achieving Quality Education for All Regional Summit, 2011) . By 2014 the percentage of qualified teachers had increased to 95% (Najjumba, et al., 2013; UNESCO, 2014, p. 376). Even with these gains, Uganda needs to increase its teaching force by 6% each year if there are to be sufficient teachers for the pupil population (UNESCO, 2014). It also needs to continue to improve the quality of teachers' professional practice (Vavrus, et al., 2011).

The creation and development of the Co-ordinating Centre Tutor role

From its inception, the CCT post was seen as ‘vital’ in terms of pedagogical, school and district education leadership (MoES, 2004, p. 25). The role was considerable (Appendix 2). The TDMS had attracted ‘the most qualified and experienced teacher educators’ (MoES, 2004, p. 45). CCTs had ‘emerged as the flag bearer and entry point of the TDMS into the primary system’ (MoES, 2000, p. 62). Hartwell et al. (2003) say that they:

‘constitute the professional and training advisors to the District as a service from the PTCs. They have no authority to compel the schools, the inspectors, nor the district to heed their advice. They provide the link to professional training and qualifications for teachers, while serving as local advisors’ (Hartwell, et al., 2003, p. 35).

This presented CCTs with a considerable task to train the untrained and to secure necessary improvements with a clear mandate from national government but only personal influence at district level. Hartwell et al. found that ‘the TDMS, and particularly the role of the CCT, has been exceptional in reaching and changing school and classroom practice’ (2003, p. 10). O’Sullivan (2010), in her case study which reviewed Uganda’s two-year Diploma in Teacher Education (DTE) which teacher educators were required to complete, found that the teacher educators themselves had not been prepared well enough to train Uganda’s primary teachers effectively. This was partially due to teacher educators’ educators being university lecturers with secondary teaching experience (O’Sullivan, 2010). Under-preparation or mis-preparation of primary teacher educators was a continuing issue with the deployment

of secondary trained teachers to supplement the stretched pre-service tutor (PST) cohort as they implemented the new PTC curriculum (Mutazindwa, et al., 2013). The current pedagogies of Ugandan teacher educator education appeared to be ineffective if the effectiveness was measured by the quality of pupil learning outcomes (O'Sullivan, 2010). The DTE training, mainly located as it was on subject content and knowledge, had little emphasis on pedagogy, on how Uganda's primary ITE students might teach or how teacher educators might teach teachers in training. The national drive to improve the quality of teachers, already in service, through the TDMS, was hampered by a curriculum for teacher educators which opted for the status quo in terms of pedagogy and assessment (O'Sullivan, 2010).

CCTs' creation meant that CPTCs had a new function where the quality of teachers in practice was to be developed and monitored by college tutors. Prior to this, the colleges' role in securing teaching quality stopped at the point of student graduation. Hartwell et al. (2003) , in their detailed and focused study of the role, contribution and performance of CCTs within the context of TDMS, evaluated strategies in place to improve basic (primary) education in Uganda, using a multi-method, multi-level approach to gather data. The researchers visited and observed a range of education staff in the field, conducted interviews with key people and led regional and national workshops. The resulting thorough report sets out the complexity of the development of basic education improvement in Uganda (Hartwell, et al., 2003) with one main conduit for such work: the TDMS. The researchers cited the high workload for CCTs with other activities tending to get precedence over practical, in-school development work (Appendix 3). The researchers noted the encroaching of erstwhile school

inspectors' work into the CCTs' work programme, as well as CCTs' lack of executive authority to insist on change occurring. In addition, there was understaffing in PTCs which could affect the CCTs' ability to get out into the field. There were teaching methods in PTCs which were overly didactic and not focused enough on ensuring that participants can apply what they are learning in practical situations. These features are interwoven with the challenges to education growth and improvement in a low-income country with increasing pupil numbers working in a post-conflict situation where resources can be scarce or insufficient, and important services either hard to come by or intermittently available (e.g. water, decent sanitation).

2.2.4 Co-ordinating centre tutors (CCTs) and their work

CCTs were assigned a group of schools with which they were to work (Figure 3). One of the schools was designated as the co-ordinating centre school or model school. This is where the CCT was to be based when in the field (SABER, 2012; MoES, 2000). The co-ordinating centre school would have an office, resource centre and accommodation. The CPTC-led CCT structure supported 539 co-ordinating centres at designated primary schools (Sugrue, et al., 2003; MoES, 2000). This was a considerable financial and managerial commitment.

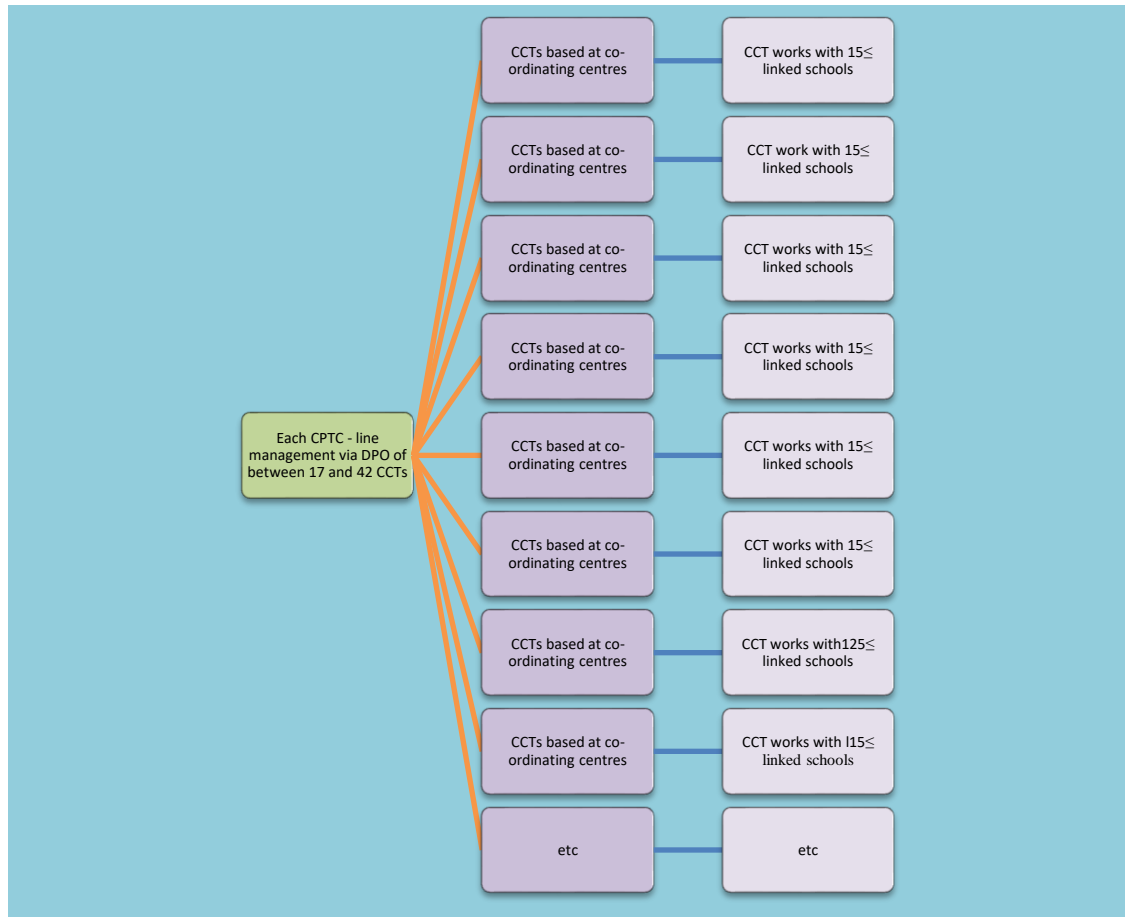


Figure 3: operational relationship between CPTC, CCTs and link schools

The CCT was to ‘be the change agent in his/her cluster of schools with a focus on improved pupil learning’ (Hartwell, et al., 2003, p. 8).

This innovative delivery system was increasingly being used as a conduit for a range of information needs (Appendix 3) with CCTs being asked to respond to an increasing range of requests from the district offices and from central government. This was the ‘seemingly elastic scope of CCT operations’ (Najjumba, et al., 2013, p. 58). This detraction from the central original foci for teacher support and development work was not confined to Uganda:

‘one of the risks of support services is that they can become the mechanism for delivering other kinds of training, thus distorting from the role of pedagogical support’ (Mulkeen, 2010, p. 121)

In Malawi the primary education resource centres were increasingly used by NGO and other organisation for fundraising activities which had the side-effect of sidelining the intended work of the advisers and their availability to undertake that work (Mulkeen, 2010) and:

‘in The Gambia the cluster monitors were expected to provide both monitoring and support functions, but were also drawn into administrative tasks, including checking on textbook delivery, verifying statistical returns, and recording the quality of buildings and latrines.’ (Mulkeen, 2010, p. 121)

CCTs had increases in their field work tasks at the same time as their school cohorts were increased (from an intended school group size of 15-20 to frequently having up to thirty government schools – Appendix 3). CCTs’ fuel allowances had decreased in real terms, they travelled to fewer schools and their motorbikes were increasingly in need of repair. CCTs were receiving less professional support and little secretarial support (Hartwell, et al., 2003)(Appendix 3). The original intention for CCTs to be able to have an active professional development role in the schools in their clusters was not realised (Winkler & Sondergaard, 2007). The Ugandan National Household Survey (UNHS) 2009/10 reported CCTs visiting just 12% of their schools (urban, rural, public and private combined) in the previous 12 months (cited in Najjumba, et al., 2013).

Burke et al. (2002), cited in Sugrue et al. (2003), were unimpressed with the predominantly didactic teaching method which CCTs themselves were observed to use, doubting that this would improve the quality of teaching in Ugandan primary classrooms. In this they were well in line with Murphy & Wolfenden (2013) whose work with teacher educators and school teachers is in a broader SSA context. Sugrue et al. were also wary of the claims that CCTs could carry out the full range of their tasks, musing that 'this role has been turned into a means of 'fire-fighting' at the local level, no matter how talented, and individual cannot do everything' (Sugrue, et al., 2003, p. 29). Sugrue et al.'s 2003 research was intended to improve the quality of teaching and learning in Uganda through providing education planning options. They examined a range of qualitative and quantitative data, using twenty-four criteria which contribute to an identification of quality in education (Sugrue, et al., 2003). They contended that teacher education globally was under strain and, thus, the position of the developing country is not necessarily unique, although it will also be under pressure. In a similar vein, Ben-Peretz posited that the circumstance of teacher education is that of 'often contradictory demands and pressures of teaching [which] create a nearly impossible situation for teacher educators' (Ben-Peretz, 2001) due to the global, national and political pressures which have an impact on the individual teacher. The CCT cohort, having initially been successful in the tasks given to them, became overstretched in capacity.

This part of the chapter, while focussing on the primary sector, looked at historical and current issues in the Uganda education system. The difficult circumstances in which

the sector developed, the challenges it still faces and its responses to the challenges share some commonalities with other countries in sub-Saharan Africa. Creating a new teacher educator cohort, CCTs, within the TDMS, was a key part of Uganda's efforts to improve serving teachers' professional education.

2.3 Mentoring: a developing activity

This section reviews literature related to mentoring and the mentoring relationship in several configurations and professional contexts, particularly in education.

2.3.1 Mentoring and mentoring relationships

Mentoring and mentoring relationships comprise a multitude of possibilities in their realisation. Conceptualising mentoring can lead to defining it and its forms. A working definition might provide a good basis for, or lead to, constructing a mentoring programme or developing credible mentoring research. The outcomes of either might be greater insight and understanding into mentoring, in its defined presentation. This section of the literature review aims to address that string of contentions. An outcome is that the ground of mentoring is neither settled nor uncontested.

Conceptualising mentoring

Mentoring, whilst a growing and increasingly embedded practice in education, is not fully and firmly conceptualised, instead it is variously conceptualised. In England, it is a formal part of the training structure for ITE students and is part of the ITE inspection process (Ofsted, 2015) which suggests an established and definable activity, able to be

employed in a multitude of sites by many people while still having an essential integrity. Yet caution should be exercised when transferring mentoring strategies from one professional area to another (Fletcher, 2012, p. 66; Sundli, 2007). Sundli (2006) characterised the growth of mentoring in education as an indicator of the move from 'individual cognitive processing' towards a more 'situated learning or cognition' (Sundli, 2007, p. 201). Kemmis et al. (2014) challenge Colley's assertion of mentoring being 'ill-defined, poorly conceptualized and weakly theorized' (Colley, 2003, p13 cited in Kemmis et al., 2014). They concede the plurality of the definitions of mentoring but state that there is no 'lack of theories' (Kemmis, et al., 2014) about mentoring. Dawson (2014) notes that the search for a definition of mentoring has taken place over nearly four decades and that the definitions continue to proliferate. Bozeman and Feeney (2007) suggest that there has been 'inattention' to the need for conceptual theory in mentoring.

Other conceptualisations of mentoring, leading to other operationalisations of mentoring, are both possible and contested. Renshaw (2009) includes counselling, facilitating and coaching in his developmental concept of mentoring. He sees mentoring as a professional equivalent to working psychotherapists' practice of being in long term therapy themselves or to the supervision function within social work. Scandura and Pelligrini (2010) question whether role modelling should be designated as a distinct mentoring function with its own component elements, in addition to career-enhancing and psychosocial functions of mentoring. Bozeman & Feeney (2007) conceptualise mentoring as being an informal relationship although there might be a

formal enabling structure. Bozeman & Feeney's outlook represents a bridge between the essential voluntariness of the mentoring relationship (Kimball, 2015) within prescribed (institutional) mentoring programmes. Certainly, this notion of the growth of a mentoring relationship (informal) being possible through an organised mentoring programme (formal) is closer than other constructions to the implicit conceptualisation of the mentoring initiative which is the focus of this study.

Fletcher (2012) in favouring co-mentoring, where those involved in the mentoring relationship are 'sharing a journey for developing values, skills and understandings and co-creating educational knowledge in the process' (2012, p. 69) illustrates the link between the mentoring conceptualisation and practice. For Fletcher, formality or informality of the mentoring relationship are not the central features but rather an implied parity between parties in the mentoring relationship.

Defining mentoring - in a range of contexts

The wide range of possible interpretations and definitions of mentoring limit the extent to which mentoring research can be generalised or compared (Leidenfrost, et al., 2011; Bozeman & Feeney, 2007; Eby, et al., 2000) with mentoring research adding up 'to less than the sum of its parts' (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007, p. 719). Kram's seminal article (Kram, 1983) with its four stages of mentoring (initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition), which has been widely quoted since publication, did not itself contain a clear definition of mentoring. Sundli, while agreeing that the concept

of mentoring 'remains confused', (Sundli, 2007, p. 201) notes that literal translations of the term for mentoring in Norwegian and Swedish include a representation of educate, leading out, with a more experienced person showing a less experienced person the right way, broadly similar to mentor: protégé as the mentoring dyad.

But mentoring has generally been defined through practice, possibly due to the difficulties in conceptualising it. In Tanzania's TDMS mentoring is indicated as an activity which might be carried out within supported school-based improvement activities. The mentoring is defined inasmuch as it appears to be a skilled practitioner supporting a less skilled practitioner in school, with the caveat that there need to be sufficient schools to support such transmission of quality and that these were lacking (Hardman, et al., 2012). Lunenberg et al. (2014) writing extensively about the professional teacher educator identifies mentor as synonymous with the terms 'coach, guide, mentor, mentor teacher, cooperating teacher, facilitator or school-based teacher educator' (2014, p. 20). Dawson considers that a definition will describe mentoring components but not the processes which are involved (2010, p. 38) and that the processes are important as they are the active operationalising of the mentoring activity. His viewpoint is that the mentoring research process, which includes the possibility of comparison, is inhibited as there is rarely sufficient information in mentoring research reports for the work, activity and efficacy of a mentoring process or event to be compared with another such piece of research or programme. Not defining mentoring but describing it instead, allows for later valid comparisons between mentoring programmes. This improves accessibility to

mentoring as a research focus. Stimulation of the learning process is a key intention of the mentoring work, whatever the role title.

Mentoring is generally being defined through practice yet practice-based evidence for mentoring efficacy is not abundant, and there is limited research information available (Harrison, et al., 2006); but how mentoring is thought about, is conceptualised and constructed must have an impact on how mentoring is put into practice. Discussing Kram and Ragins (2007), Kimball (2015) sees a mentor ascribed a range of functions concomitant with a broad range of operation of the mentoring relationship. Kram and Isabella (1985) and set out nine developmental functions of mentoring relationships, grouping them as either career-enhancing or psychosocial. They contrasted these functions with those which they identify as being functions of a peer relationship: no functions are common to both mentoring and peer relationships. As these functions were conceptualised from a work-based standpoint where the classical mentoring dyad (mentor: protégé) prevailed this allowed for an operationalisation of mentoring which could be either career-enhancing or psychosocial or both, dependent on where within the hierarchy the mentor and protégé were in relation to each other (Scandura & Pelligrini, 2010; Kram & Isabella, 1985). Mentoring in this conception would, at its core, be a formal or artificial construct and a series of purposes. Referring to mentoring of new teachers Harrison et al. write:

‘the multiple meanings we have already noted about the terms ‘mentoring’ and ‘coaching’ highlight how difficult it is to be sure that we are referring to a commonly understood concept. This situation is compounded by the number of

models of (or arrangements for) mentoring of beginning teachers.’ (2006, p. 1056)

This viewpoint is in line with advice offered to CCTs, headteachers and inspectors in Uganda who were being trained on mentoring as a strategy to bring about teacher effectiveness through a programme presented by the MoES with United States aid (USAID) (Appendix 4) circa 2003 where an overlap, if not an interchangeability of terms, was acceptable. Harrison’s viewpoint resonates for me as I tried to identify not only what mentoring and mentoring relationships were likely to be, in education, but what they might look like in education in Uganda. I found that there was nothing which appeared to replicate enough the construct of the mentoring initiative which is the focus of this study, although the informality in a formal setting approached it (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007). This meant that situating the mentoring initiative became problematic.

The journey towards defining mentoring can begin with a classical or traditional definition of mentoring as ‘transmitting skills and knowledge by top-down means in expectation of preserving existing cultural norms’ (Fletcher, 2012, p. 69). Fletcher’s definition implies the securing of a state i.e. a cultural norm. Kram and Ragins (2007) identify mentoring as ‘a relationship between an older, more experienced mentor and a younger, less experienced protégé for the purpose of helping the protégé’s career’ (2007, p. 5). This not only includes age as a factor in the mentoring relationship but links age with capability (at a simple level, to capability which is due to access to specific experience). Baron and Morin (2009) refer to open-ended mentoring where

the mentoring takes as much time as is needed and where the mentoring work may occur inside and outside of the workplace, in contrast to the more professionally-focused and work-based coaching relationship. Baron and Morin conceptualise the mentoring process as operating in the same professional milieu as the mentee, where a mentor supports a mentee professionally and emotionally, offering guidance, protection and preparation for career progression and acceptance (2009). The hierarchical and goal-orientated nature of this type of mentoring relationship and its purpose illustrate Fletcher's (2012) caution about a direct transfer of business mentoring practice and values to education mentoring. The simple nature of the mentor: protégé model of mentoring appeared inappropriate to me in undertaking a mentoring task in a setting in which the mentor was the incomer on several levels and where seniority and experience were open to interpretation because of this.⁹

Protégé or mentee?

The modern mentor relationship which describes the dyad as mentor: protégé originated within the commercial and business sector where internal development of managers and leaders emphasised the company culture and values. These dyads had the potential to be cost-effective e.g. reduce staff turnover, reduce induction costs. The principles behind working within a mentoring relationship (support, guidance, development) were adopted by other sectors including education. This adoption appears to have developed alongside a change from using "protégé" to using "mentee". The use of mentee instead of protégé also signals the changes to what the mentoring partnership could mean in other professional sectors (Fletcher,

⁹ Neither 'mentor: protégé' nor 'mentor: mentee' were terms which were used to denote the mentoring relationship within the initiative. The title 'mentor' appeared to stand alone, which, in retrospect, allowed for flexibility of interpretation of the role in practice.

2012; Sundli, 2007). The increase in mentoring relationship versions (e.g. one-to-many, many-to-one, co-mentoring, peer mentoring, cross-sector) is accompanied by necessary adaptations to mentoring relationship conceptualisation (Fletcher, 2012; Sundli, 2007). In the relationship, the individual's personal professional development (as opposed to institutional development) becomes more important, requires nurturing and a safe space for expression (Lord, et al., 2008). Protégé, with its implications of learner and subordinate, is typically replaced by mentee as interpretations of the mentoring relationship evolve.

A mentor operates within a partnered relationship, the other party often being styled as a protégé or mentee. The most usual use of protégé is to do with a classical mentoring dyad which envisages the protégé as less experienced in the professional role than the mentor who is linked with them (Scandura & Pelligrini, 2010; Sundli, 2007). The role of the mentor in the dyad is to help the protégé to advance in their professional career (Kram & Ragins, 2007). Given the professional seniority of the mentor the implication is that the preferred outcomes are for the protégé to emulate the professional journey or behaviours of the mentor (Baron & Morin, 2009). Within the initiative, there is a case for professional parity e.g. place in the education hierarchy, years in service, role as teacher educator) but the intercultural context might affect the extent to which the mentor could work as the acknowledged professional senior.

A mentee appears more as a counterpoint to a mentor in the mentoring relationship. The mentee can look to the mentor for professional support (Baron & Morin, 2009) and can be represented as a beneficiary in the mentoring relationship. The mentee can be presented as a volunteer within a mentoring relationship (Kimball, 2015). The attraction of the mentoring relationship to the mentor can be that there is reflected institutional kudos when the mentor

is paired with an impressive mentee (Kimball, 2015). This suggests that attention needs to be given to the will and intent of the mentoring relationship partners.

Mentoring in a range of contexts

Mentoring can and does occur in a range of professional, formal and informal settings for example, in health services (Wilson, 2014), in teacher induction (Bullough Jr, 2012), and transformative professional development (Griffiths, et al., 2010) – supporting experienced teacher educators. A thorough study by Lord et al. (2008) reviewed thirteen education and social care sources (from a potential pool of 148 sources of which 43 met the criteria for full audit) which were subject to a full illustrative review (Lord, et al., 2008, pp. 14 - 15)). They constructed a description of mentoring:

‘as being concerned with ‘growing an individual’, both professionally and personally. It is linked with professional and career development, and is somewhat characterised by an ‘expert–novice’ relationship.’ (Lord, et al., 2008, p. 10)

From what is certainly a comprehensive study, Lord et al.’s description of aspects of the mentoring relationship does not have the distinction of exclusivity: it could be the description of an apprenticeship or the induction phase in any number of jobs.

In contrast to the business context of mentoring Kimball, writing of his research on mentoring within the US Army, notes the army’s definition of mentoring as a ‘voluntary developmental relationship...that is characterised by mutual trust and respect’ (Kimball, 2015; Department of the Army, 2012). This definition makes clear

the expectation of individual and non-coercive agency within the mentoring relationship.

Fletcher's intercultural self-study (2012) on research mentoring locates itself in England and in Japan and develops a notion of generative research mentoring. There are intercultural implications when conceptualising or putting education mentoring or research mentoring into practice in different cultures (Fletcher, 2012). An example of this cultural distinction is indicated in differences in concepts of self in the East and in the West (Fletcher, 2012, p. 66), 'the Japanese concept of self relates to integration and consensus building rather than self-promotion, as an individual making a contribution to a collaborative process' (2012, p. 75) and not, as in England, part of a concept of self which is to do with the creation and recognition of a unique personal identity. In Japan, the self is a group not an individual persona and the drive is towards co-operatively agreed and application outcomes (Fletcher, 2012).

Baingana et al. in their qualitative study using focus groups of Ugandan medical students included role modelling and mentoring within the informal professionalism curriculum (Baingana, et al., 2010) . They highlighted the fact of culture as an element in understanding the functions or roles (or rules) within a mentoring relationship. Their study presented some challenges to northern hemisphere/western world/high income countries' notions of professionalism. One was the impact of scarcity of resources on professionalism and a second challenge was the cultural standpoints which support communalism in contrast to individual confidentiality. They

conceptualise these issues as a test of ‘the universal applicability of internationally accepted standards of professionalism’ (Baingana, et al., 2010, p. 1).

Within the plethora of mentoring relationship dualities, there are a number of presumptions which could underpin this work. I consider that these presumptions are to do with the being of the mentor or mentee as well as their function in the mentoring relationship, as is illustrated by my account of some of the dualities which are found in mentoring literature (Table 1).

Mentor	Older	Expert	More knowledgeable	More experienced	Transmits	Gives support	Change agent
Mentee/s	Younger	Novice	Less knowledgeable	Less experienced	Receives	Gets support	Changing

Table 1: some dualities in mentor/mentee relationships

Dependent on the features of the mentoring relationship, these dualities show a potential imbalance in the relationship, an implication that the mentoring relationship is not necessarily one of equals. Notwithstanding this, I find that this part of the literature review adds two additional components towards the construction of the features of the mentoring initiative. The first is the idea of voluntarism (Kimball, 2015): to what extent is the involvement in the initiative by CCTs voluntary and does it matter if it is not? The second area is that of communalism (Baingana, et al., 2010): to what extent is the mentoring work being undertaken with similar or same real world views by participants and, again, does it matter if this is not the case?

Mentoring relationships

Kimball (2015) finds that the most professionally promising mentees tended to get selected by mentors. This can only be posited in a mentoring relationship in which choice is an element. The voluntary nature of mentoring can be challenged by work-based mentoring of a senior by a junior colleague or where the mentoring function is written into support and development arrangements (for example, within structures for supporting teachers new in service). If being a voluntary relationship is a good thing, or is desirable within the mentoring relationship, the inclusion of power or the possibility of influence may limit the choice for the mentee. Kimball's example is one where, even in a voluntary setting, the relationship is not balanced as the mentor chooses and in choosing selects the most promising of those who have volunteered to be mentored.

If the task of mentoring is 'growing an individual' (Lord, et al., 2008), the purpose of mentoring is change agency, expecting a fundamental impact on a person's view or presentation of themselves. This personal, transformative facet of mentoring is itself transformed into 'sustained, responsive guidance or critical friendship' with mentoring operating as a synonym for coaching (Raybould & Cordingly, 2012).

Where there is agreement and clarity about the mentoring relationship in education, the resulting relationship can be considerable in its power. In Norway, there is a long tradition of mentoring as part of the professional structure for preparing students for teaching (Sundli, 2007) and this is partnered with a specialist training located at the

colleges with which the mentor would work. Sundli writes about mentors being 'headhunted' ... 'on the basis of their reputation as expert teachers' (2007, p. 208). The range of tasks which the Norwegian teaching mentor covers (including planning, assessment, co-ordination and modelling exemplary teaching) suggests that induction into a mentor role should be considered. There has to be reflection about whether this list of activities includes mentoring or whether mentoring includes all of these tasks. Sundli's teaching mentor is a stunning, powerful person, highly regarded in the school and local community, and confident in her skills, judgement and status in the community:

'The mentor appears to be regarded as respected and loved by pupils, parents, students and colleges. She represents the super-exponent of the well-functioning, helpful, predictable teacher, clear and direct in exposing her norms for behaviour. She is even permitted to reprimand fathers at parents' meetings and be respected for it. She is seen to represent a secure role model for the students.

'The mentor is regarded as entitled to know best, and induct the novice into the professional teaching culture and discourse through her arrangements and interpretations of what is right and wrong. What guarantees the norms as the mentor represents them, are the explicit reasons why good behaviour is demanded, as well as the reference to cultural agreement about valid norms and societal demands as expressed by the mentor regarding what is suitable to tell. Such judgements are made based on the mentor's own professional experience and lived ideals. The parents and the school expect it like this,

society needs 'decent' upbringing and resistance to damaging forces, and she knows how to go about this task.' (Sundli, 2007, pp. 208-9)

This powerful depiction of a mentor was noted to have an adverse impact on the authority and confidence on the teacher in training when translated into a real life mentoring relationship (Sundli, 2001 cited in Sundli, 2006).

Fletcher sees a need for training on the pedagogy of research mentoring for people involved in research mentoring. She considers that this might be addressed by co-mentoring, with joint construction of knowledge and process being in the foreground (Fletcher, 2012). This is another of the features which I compare with the mentoring initiative: Fletcher's suggestion would mean that the work of mentors in the initiative would have been preceded or accompanied by relevant training on mentoring and on how to mentor. This represents a factor by which the mentoring initiative can be described though not defined.

In aiming to characterise the mentoring relationship there are many versions from which to choose. The facets or features of the mentoring relationship can also differ (Table 2). This range and variability of the construction of the mentoring relationship and the features of that relationship also suggest that describing mentoring might be more productive than defining it.

The mentoring relationship: a variety of possible components	
It elicits change	It is often, but not always, a dyad
It assists development and growth	It is often, but not always, an unequal relationship
It is adaptable to the professional context	It is sometimes, but not always, a voluntary activity
It is sometimes, but not always, long term	It is sometimes, but not always, time-limited
It is intended to be a relationship rather than a transaction	It is sometimes, but not always, goal-defining and goal-orientated

Table 2: facets of a range of mentoring relationship dyads

Towards using a framework for defining a mentoring programme

In trying to identify forms of mentoring and mentoring relationships I was trying to understand what, if any, version of mentoring and mentoring relationships was central to the mentoring initiative which is central to this case study. The literature confirmed that the conceptualisation of mentoring was reflected in its operationalisation (Leidenfrost, et al., 2011; Bozeman & Feeney, 2007; Colley, 2003; Eby, et al., 2000). This led to a consideration of mentoring in a range of professional contexts but resulted in no compelling definition of mentoring which would encompass most, if not all, of the versions of mentoring that were presented. The reviewing of mentoring brought forward cultural differences (Fletcher, 2012; Sundli, 2007), differences in formality (Kimball, 2015; Dawson, 2010; Bozeman & Feeney, 2007) and in purpose and function (Leidenfrost, et al., 2011; Kram & Ragins, 2007). Keeping these points in mind and based on my understanding of the literature, I constructed a working definition of mentoring and mentor which is set out below:

Mentoring is a process, which can be formal or informal, which usually involves one person working directly (interpersonally) with another individual. The linking of one individual to another is consensual and freely entered into even when formal. Mentoring is a long-term process which can involve meetings, appointments and tasks. The aim of mentoring is to support, guide and enable the mentored individual to build on whatever they bring to the relationship in terms which they recognise and to which they agree. This aim is intended or hoped to result in personal growth which can be identified as a benefit. The primary beneficiary of mentoring will be the mentee but, in as much as there is always a transfer when two items or people collide or interact, there is likely to be benefit for the mentor. The benefits for mentor and mentee may or may not be the same.

A mentor is the person who is a partner in the mentoring process and who works with the mentee. In professional mentoring, the mentor is likely to be in the same or an allied professional field as the mentee with professional skills, knowledge or access which can be drawn upon during the mentoring process. They will undertake the mentoring activities consciously and conscientiously even if they are assigned as part of the job description. The mentor will take responsibility for their own part in the mentoring process. The mentor's long term and primary aim is likely to be the professional development of the mentee, but they cannot guarantee that this professional growth will occur during the period of the mentoring relationship.

The similarities and the differences between mentoring and other activities, such as coach or guide are fluid and contested.

I retain some equivocation about my own definitions when the mentoring activity is set in the context of this study and find that Hempel (1952) quoted in Bozeman (2007) encapsulates the basis for my equivocation by pointing out the conditionality implied in using an expression. I am in accord with Hempel's assertion that the community which uses an expression should define and agree it. My study involved several different versions of community. In my view, agreement over a definition was unlikely or, if it occurred, would represent an appropriation of the dominant partner's version of mentoring and the mentoring relationship.

In constructing my definition, I find that I have been implicitly describing some features of the mentoring initiative which is the focus of this study. It appeared that what was more relevant than defining mentoring was to see what work was being undertaken on the ground in the Ugandan primary teacher education context and then to consider where or whether it was placed within the variety of interpretations of mentoring and mentoring relationships. In the light of this, I found that Dawson's (2014; 2010) discussions about defining mentoring, describing mentoring and about the capacity to develop comparative mentoring research were highly relevant. This reflects the earlier points made about mentoring being defined by practice (Harrison, et al., 2006; Colley, 2003) and the impact on mentoring research (Kemmis, et al., 2014; Bozeman & Feeney, 2007).

Jacobi (1991, cited in Dawson, 2014) requires a definition of mentoring as a prerequisite to stringent research on or about mentoring. There has to be merit in Jacobi's statement but the plurality of mentoring and the mentoring relationship renders the defining of mentoring an impermanent activity. The lack of control groups in much mentoring research leads to outcomes of mentoring being assessed (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004) without being able to firmly link the outcomes of the mentoring to specific mentoring processes.

Drawing from the academic literature, my constructed definition of mentoring and the mentoring relationship allowed for inclusivity. I sought to find a means of addressing the theoretical basis for my study in ways which were contextually appropriate. The dichotomy between the informality of the mentoring relationship (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007) and structured formalism (Kajs, 2002; Sherman & Camilli, 2014; Barrera, et al., 2010; Page, et al., 2005) of mentoring programmes suggested a different route to me. Dawson's cross-continental doctoral research (2010) was concerned with understanding the efficacy of online mentoring relationships within geographically dispersed supplemental instruction programmes. He constructed a new theoretical framework which took its references from social exchange theory and social learning theory. This theory considered the matching process between mentor and mentee and importance of seniority, experience and modelling behaviours in a matched mentoring relationship (Dawson, 2010). This resulted in a series of elements (Dawson, 2010) against which a mentoring programme might be considered. Dawson further refined the elements as a result of his research and has since refined them further (Dawson, 2014). The resulting framework (Table 3) has the capacity to include the

choices which are a feature of the diversity of mentoring and to allow for a description of the operational structure of the mentoring relationship.

1. **Objectives:** the aims or intentions of the mentoring model
2. **Roles:** a statement of who is involved and their function
3. **Cardinality:** the number of each sort of role involved in a mentoring relationship
4. **Tie strength:** the intended closeness of the mentoring relationship
5. **Relative seniority:** the comparative experience, expertise, or status of participants
6. **Time:** the length of a mentoring relationship, regularity of contact, and quantity of contact
7. **Selection:** how mentors and mentees are chosen
8. **Matching:** how mentoring relationships are composed
9. **Activities:** actions that mentors and mentees can perform during their relationship
10. **Resources and tools:** technological or other artifacts available to assist mentors and mentees
11. **Role of technology:** the relative importance of technology to the relationship
12. **Training:** how necessary understandings and skills for mentoring will be developed in participants
13. **Rewards:** what participants will receive to compensate for their efforts
14. **Policy:** a set of rules or guidelines on issues such as privacy or the use of technology
15. **Monitoring:** what oversight will be performed, what actions will be taken under what circumstances, and by whom
16. **Termination:** how relationships are ended

Table 3: mentoring design elements (Dawson, 2010, 2014)

Some of the design elements are particularly relevant to a technologically rich, aware and adept populace which was a feature of the geographically dispersed populations which were part of the programmes which Dawson included in his study. This did not appear to preclude the framework being used in other settings. The elements appeared relevant in this study and could be used within a research design where three constituencies were being researched in relation to the same initiative. These constituencies were: the intent of the mentoring initiative originators (prior intent and

expectations) and mentors and CCTs (prior intent and expectation coupled with in the field operationalisation). The capacity to compare intent and experience is a variation in the use of the theoretical model.

2.4 Summary

In my understanding of the literature, there is contested ground in relation to key concepts and theory underpinning mentoring research which was limiting the possibility of comparative mentoring research (Dawson, 2010; Bozeman & Feeney, 2007). I judged it more constructive to accept that as mentoring and the mentoring relationship were contested it was necessary to look elsewhere to assist in understanding mentoring in the context of the initiative being studied. After the initial study¹⁰, I drew together a definition of mentoring which drew on the literature but considered that the definition is limited because of the context in which the study was set.

The challenges to the Ugandan primary education sector, and to the concomitant teacher educator and teacher education sectors, make clear that previous strategies for improving the quality of education could only be accepted as partially successful or more possibly, stagnating or on a plateau. I judged that taking Dawson's framework as the theoretical underpinning of this study would allow for clarification of the

¹⁰ In the Open University Ed.D. there is a requirement to undertake a limited but linked study in the first year. This contributes to and informs the full study.

mentoring initiative. There would be degrees of compliance and conformity in relation to each design element when a mentoring relationship or programme was mapped against it. I consider that the framework had the virtue of being able to be used as a planning tool or as a review instrument. This research provides a seldom documented account of mentoring activity in the primary teacher education sector in Uganda and a view on an innovative mentoring initiative. The next chapter outlines the methodology which underpins the study and the use of mentoring framework mapping within the study.

CHAPTER 3 Methodology

This chapter begins with an account of the research strategy and the research design. It looks at the data which were collected to enable the research questions to be properly responded to. The data collection tools are considered along with an account of the extent to which they were fit for purpose. The chapter concludes with a focus on ethical issues.

3.1 Research strategy

As researchers, placing ourselves in a global setting requires us to consider what reality and truth might mean, whether these are stable constructs and whether they are universal. My research took place in an intercultural context, with participants being nationals of seven different countries and all living in Uganda at the time of data collection. Culture is to do with values and beliefs which guide and drive the actions of a group of people (Rossman & Rallis, 2012). Groups can be identified at various levels, including family, town, nation. The cultural values and beliefs of one group will have differences and similarities with other groups. It is in this ground of difference and similarity that intercultural research operates (Phillips & Schweisfurth, 2014). This research identifies understandings of the main groups involved in the mentoring initiative where mentoring is intended as a strategy to effect change. Understandings of mentoring in practice come from constructing interpretations of realities and truths from CCTs', mentors' and other research participants' responses, from interpretations of the contexts from which they come and in which they are and from documentary evidence.

In undertaking this research, I took the ontological stance that the world in which we live exists in a changeable state: it is defined and redefined by our human activities, our interaction in society (Bryman, 2012). A realist or objectivist ontology asserts that the world is as it is, that reality is independent and acts without interference or inference from actors, that essentially 'what you see is what you get' (Bryman, 2012; Neuman, 2011). Realism locates around the immutability, independence and universality of the world, its matter and reality (Hügli & Lübcke, 2005). It supposes that there is 'a reality separate from our descriptions of it' (Bryman, 2012, p. 32). Crotty (1998) summarises this view in his comment that, 'true enough, the world is there regardless of whether human beings are conscious of it' (Crotty, 1998, p. 10).

My conclusion is that this is a seductive standpoint, locating itself in the everyday phenomenon of accepting that events carry on even when we are not present. Philosophically or metaphysically, this stance must be defensible, but my lived experience is one of interpretation and re-interpretation: acts of interpretation being more acutely exercised (and noticed) when operating outside of familiar contexts. Much like regarding optical illusions, trying to discern background from foreground, I see knowledge as being constructed from and with reference to our realities, contexts and understandings (Bryman, 2012).

This interpretivist stance allows for explanations which lead to understandings of actions and utterances which respect their contexts. As a comparative outsider to Ugandan society and to the Ugandan education system in particular, my

interpretations needed to be informed by research participants. In this research I wished to be party to some element of the private interpretative world as well as to the positivistic public world (Bassey, 1999, p. 44). Interpretations of the same events, utterances or outcomes can vary while the core phenomena which give rise to the various interpretations remain as they always were. This is because we bring ourselves to the interpretation - the sum of our experiences, wishes and concerns - with conscious or unconscious exercise of whatever is timely to call upon. Interpretivism presents as an alternative to positivism. Realism presents as a strong variant to it (Bryman, 2012) .

The circumstance of modern society means that, increasingly, there is more than one lens to be used to understand what reality or realities might be. This qualitative research takes an interpretivist/constructivist stance as it understands that human beings are part of their actions and their interpretations of their actions (Crossley & Vulliamy, 2010). They are part of constructing knowledge.

Phenomenology was a possible methodology to use for this study as I was concerned with understanding motivations and behaviours. Phenomenology asks the researcher to recognise and address their preconceptions of and responses to the observed phenomena (Bryman, 2012). It is an iterative process requiring conscious self-reflection (Rossman & Rallis, 2012). The phenomenological approach has strength in requiring events to be explained or interpreted by those who are experiencing them (Bryman, 2012; Groenewald, 2004). An aspect of phenomenology which is relevant to

this intercultural study is an examination of natural attitude (Sarantakos, 2005). As a lone researcher, I judged that if I were to take a phenomenological approach I would need to reduce considerably the size of the prospective participants (a diverse population in several ways), the locations for the research or take more time than was available to me.

3.2. Research design

Due to the genuinely innovative nature of the mentoring initiative under investigation and the intercultural nature of the research subject, this study is addressed through a storytelling case study approach which is influenced by the ethnographic method. It straddles Stake's definitions of intrinsic and instrumental case study as these locate around enthusiasm-driven research and change-agency research, as there is 'no hard-and-fast line distinguishing intrinsic case study from instrumental, but rather a zone of combined purpose' (Stake, 2005, p. 445). This is because the impetus for my doing the research was a personal need to know and to understand mentoring and its operation within the mentoring initiative. The research developed to have instrumental potential.

Simons (2013) discusses the use of the case study in educational evaluation. She cites as a misunderstood strength the case study's celebration of the 'particular and the unique' and its capacity to be 'inconclusive' (Simons, 1996). Simons considers that policy makers should see these features as strengths although policymakers have difficulty in accommodating uncertainty (Simons, 1996). Case study research can incorporate quantitative data. It accommodates the researcher as an interpreter of data and it is useful where there is new or original work being done, where there are

no prior cases or the possibility of control groups (Simons, 2013). Yin (2009) situates case study in the now, not the historical and where the researcher has no control over the participants' behaviour. It can generate some explanations of factors which contribute to the progress or success of what occurs (Simons, 2013). This contemporary location of case and the originality or newness of the research focus allow for the case study's storytelling mode (Bassey, 1999) to be used. Story telling brings the expectation of a narrative which includes within it a sense of where the main story begins, where it ends and of the events which occur in the journey. This study marked the beginning of a story through analysis of documents which pre-dated the start of the mentoring initiative. Individual interviews with CCTs and mentors told a series of stories which started prior to the placements. The accounts included CCTs' and mentors' expectations and professional experience. Interview responses recounted the individuals' stories on their journeys through their placements, their reflections on the work being done and the conditions in which the work occurred. CCTs and mentors talk about the success of the initiative, their own professional success and the potential for further improvement. Outcomes of document analysis (local documents) and content analysis (semi-structured interviews and participant observation) are compared with each other, using a mentoring programme framework.

The centrality of context for case study method makes it a good candidate for intercultural, cross-cultural or comparative education studies (Williams, 2015; Louisy, 1997; Vuillamy, et al., 1990).

Case study has similarities with ethnography in its close focus on the contemporary and lived experience. An ethnographic approach allows for storytelling or narrative strategies as a means of drawing together aspects of the research evidence (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). It allows for flexibility of approach to situation using range of data collection methods. Living within the research setting for the duration of the research, undertaking formal and informal participant observation and the extended duration of interviews series are aspects of the ethnographic method which form part of the research design. As a method of enquiry ethnographic method is useful where the matter to be researched is little known or is unknown to the researcher. It allows for flexibility of approach to situations through using a range of data collection methods. Ethnography is centrally concerned with sense-making through observation, curiosity and interrogation (triangulation) of evidence. There is a limitation to using ethnography as a main research method when the context is little known to the researcher. Insufficient insight or knowledge of the cultural context of research participants by the researcher may lead to the misinterpretation of research data (Smith, 2012; El Harras, 2011).

I considered that the mobility of some of the major actors and the time-limited nature of the mentoring initiative would make an ethnographic study unreasonably narrow in scope while not fully addressing my research questions (Yin, 2009; Vuillamy, et al., 1990). This is because CCTs were linked with and lived close to their co-ordinating centres. The centres could be one or two hours (or more) away from the home college. Information about mentors moving into placements and completing placements varied from the planned schedule (Busuulwa, 2010). Mentors were placed

in CPTCs across Uganda, the closest mentor colleague being based two to three hours away from my own college. Other colleges were over eight hours away. Both CCTs and mentors could move in or out of post within the duration of the study.

All mentors worked to locally decided workplans. This reality meant that opportunities for working alongside other mentors in the field would be highly limited. I, too, had a locally agreed workplan to deliver. An alternative would have been to focus primarily on mentoring as understood and experienced by CCTs. Due to the distances involved, the only group of CCTs where this was feasible in this study were the CCTs linked with my own college.

The time limitations of the placement and the unpredictability of opportunities for field work led to my applying early for ethical approval (Appendix 5). This was obtained so that first-hand data could begin to be collected promptly. The case boundaries were not fully defined at this stage. I agree that the boundaries can be delayed until fieldwork occurs (Simons, 2013) with the understanding that the initially envisaged boundaries may change as the research progresses. This fluidity is appropriate if, as Shen states 'the purpose of case study is not to represent the world, but to represent the case' (Shen, 2009, p. 22). Miles and Huberman (1994) characterised this as 'the struggle with the questions of 'what my case is' and 'where my case leaves off' ' (1994, p. 25) and advised deciding the case early, if not the case boundaries (1994, p. 27). Simons notes that 'boundaries may also shift [...] once you begin the analysis' (Simons, 2013, p. 29) which is what I found after completing the

initial study as this assisted with the re-alignment of boundaries in the main study. The research context needed expression within the study. The addition of narrative accounts to the text allowed for a naturalistic or ethnographic approach to data collection (Cohen, et al., 2003). This provides a vicarious experience to the reader as well as providing the basis for researcher analysis to take place (Bassey, 1999). Therefore, the data for the research are qualitative, mainly arising from content analysis of interview transcripts, participant observation schedules and local documents.

<p>CCTs: working at one CPTC. Many people experiencing (participating) in the same programme at the same college Depth relating to understanding the programme in the field in one location and in relation to one mentor's interpretation</p>	
<p>Intersection: mentor working from CCTs' college with common work brief with other mentors at other colleges. Researcher as mentor, based at one CPTC and being an insider to the wider mentor group. Researcher as a receiver of stories and linker of stories</p>	<p>Mentors: working at fifteen different CPTCs. Each mentor experiencing (facilitating) the mentoring initiative from a different college Range relating to understanding the programme across several locations and from several interpretations</p>

Figure 4: representation of the case: interwoven stories

The researcher could mediate data, to analyse and to consider the data about the initiative from participant observation and from local documents.

The case in this study is not a single event or a single point but a 'singular case' (Stake, 2005, p. 444). The case definition locates on mentoring within a specific primary teacher educators' programme in Uganda and the case includes information pertinent to two main participant groups, CCTs and mentors, operating within the mentoring initiative. The case does not include detailed focus on other education officials, nor on UNICEF or VSO staff or other programmes which were concerned with improving primary education or primary teacher educators' education nor on CCTs other than from one CPTC, although these are mentioned where relevant.

3.3 Data collection: three constituencies

At the outset of this study, the research questions were about definitions and understandings of teacher educator, mentor and coach and how these differed between UNICEF and the Ugandan Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES). By the time teacher educators took up their work in the field, UNICEF was calling the teacher educators 'mentors'. This meant that understanding of mentor work, whatever that work was to be, was a more appropriate focus and would contribute to an appreciation of the impact of the initiative.

The final research questions focused on three constituencies:

- the intent and outcomes of the mentoring initiative as it had been planned by initiative originators (MoES, UNICEF)
- the experiences, expectations and actions of CCTs as they participated in the mentoring initiative

- the experiences, expectations and actions of mentors as they participated in the mentoring initiative

Data was required which had the potential to elicit and explore meanings from individual participants and from groups of participants. The data collection methods had to allow for views of the work in action to be gathered (whether they were reported or directly observed). The semi-structured interview schedules were designed to provide such information.

The research context is not a stratification into one or two homogenous groups.

There are three constituencies which are linked with each other. These are the representations from the mentoring initiative originators, the CCTs and the mentors.

As a researcher, I was interested in the intersections of the constituencies.

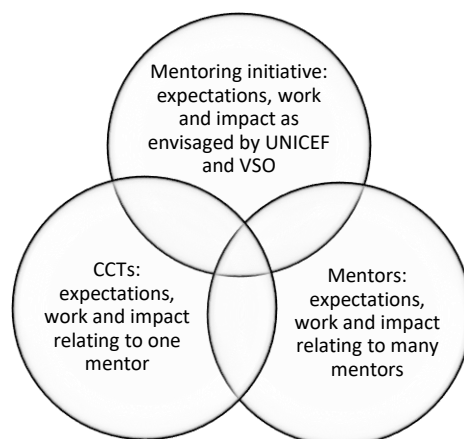


Figure 5: interchange of expectations, work and impact of the mentoring initiative, CCTs and mentors

One of the lenses through which this research will be regarded is that of the researcher: a black, female, English-speaking English national. But there are other views which need to be given space. The mentors had experience of different education systems and philosophies of education and their experience was local and senior. The mentoring initiative originators were international with pre-existing local experience.

The data collected for this study were to be interpreted to check for meaning and application, not calculated for quantity. Given the size of the CCT and the mentor participant groups, and the use of participant observation, face to face interviews, case study and ethnographic features, qualitative methods were more appropriate than quantitative methods. Context and background were available through face-to-face interviews, participant observation and document review.

I had considered using data which was collected for UNICEF's monitoring of the initiative. The data had been collected annually by each mentor in respect of the schools in their locality which were part of the initiative. I chose not to use the data collected from my own schools through CCTs due to difficulties in assuring its quality and integrity. That data linked named CCTs, a range of school-generated criteria, the mentoring initiative's key outcomes and pupil achievement. Had the local dataset been more accurate, then it could have supplemented the qualitative data from interviews and participant observation which deal with success of the mentoring initiative. I did not have access to the data from other mentors. CCTs' views were an

essential part of the research. It would have been unduly difficult to negotiate access to CCTs in colleges other than my own, particularly within the time frame available to do the research. I opted to manage the logistical challenges by interviewing CCTs who were working with my own college.

3.4 Data collection: methods

There were three main data collection methods: local documents review, semi-structured interviews and participant observation. The data collection methods were selected to ensure:

- Appropriateness: does the data collection type suit the data which are expected to be collected? In this research the intercultural nature of the setting required that the research instruments be accessible and not deter people from being involved. English was the sole language used for interviews. I accepted that I would have to be sensitive to and deal with misunderstandings or misinterpretations as they arose.
- Economy and convenience: what will the cost be (financial and time) to undertake data collection?
- Acceptability: how would the proposed data collection forms suit my preferences and skills? Would I be able to collect data in ways that I understood and which gave me information which I could then use?

Document review: local documents which set out the rationale for the initiative, its intended operation, monitoring, outcomes and staffing were collected. Where these

documents were dated, they originated in 2010 (Appendix 6). Access to this literature was due to my being a mentor within the mentoring initiative and, therefore, having privileged access. I used the local documents to map the initiative (Table 7) taking as main themes the sixteen elements from Dawson's mentoring framework¹¹.

Interviews: semi-structured interview data were collected through face-to-face interviews (appendices 7 and 8). The participants' responses were written down within the interview, meanings checked at the time and any additional notes were added.

Participant observation: the observations were collected in two ways but ultimately recorded in the same format (Appendix 9). Most observations were contemporaneous, interval timed notes taken during the daily work activities. The exceptions were the video record of initiative review meetings. In this case, the video recording was taken at work events and was transcribed onto the participant observation format after the event.

The data from interview and participant observation data was primarily organised using thematic content analysis using Nvivo10. NVivo is a software package which allows for textual, video, audio and other information to be downloaded, transferred or pasted in. Segments of these sources can be clipped and organised into nodes (or categories). Word frequencies, category density and coverage and other reports can be presented via the software. In common with other qualitative data analysis

¹¹ Dawson (2010) set out the framework which was refined as a result of his study. These changes were set out within the text. Subsequently, updated elements were published in Dawson (2014).

programmes, decisions about categorisation are the responsibility of the user as are analyses which arise from the user-organised information. This has allowed for some cautious quantizing (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 42) , the identification of similar occurrences or statements which are then able to be grouped and used numerically. From content analysis of individuals' responses, coding and categorisations were developed which were verified manually. Along with document analysis against identified themes, the interview and participant observation data required themes to be identified through analysis (Chapter 4). Taken together, the various data collection methods allow for an interweaving of stories – of the placement as experienced by mentors and by CCTs, and the placement as a space for development of the mentoring strategy. An example from a coded CCT schedule is given in Appendix 10 and an example from a coded mentor schedule in Appendix 11.

3.4.1 Local documents

The content analysis which mapped local mentoring initiative documents against Dawson's framework elements (Dawson, 2014; 2010) and each element was used as an initial theme. A range of documents were analysed: draft mentoring initiative proposals, updated initiative proposals and terms of reference and qualifications and experience for initiative teacher educators. It used the initiative volunteer placement document (which was used to match the volunteer educator to the placement), project co-ordination agreement (PCA) budget template and a document about responsibilities for some of the parties involved in the initiative (Appendix 6).

3.4.2 Mentor and CCT semi-structured interviews

The interviews took place in several locations: mainly in locations in the districts (e.g. co-ordinating centres, cafés) but also in my college office and in my off-site home. All participants were given an information leaflet about the research and were asked to read and to sign a consent form (Appendix 12). Background features were also collected about mentors' and the CCTs' professional background and their typical working weeks. Participants were encouraged to take as much time as they wished. As a result, the interviews took from 50 to 150 minutes (mentors) (Appendix 13) and from 20 to 126 minutes (CCTs) (Appendix 14).

The interview format allowed for open-ended questions where the responses could be organised to identify groupings, categories or viewpoints. Semi-structured interview schedules were devised with open intent (the participants knew what the focus of the interview was to be) but the organisation of the questions was planned to lead from the familiar to the more unfamiliar or less considered and invited internal comparisons by the participants. The questions took account of thematic and dynamic dimensions (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009) and avoided going straight to the point as a strategy to build trust and confidence. The interviews covered job or placement situation, a focus on terms used in role and their meanings, a focus on mentor work in action, a section on the impact of the mentor work and a section on futures. I hoped to obtain rich data about the experiences of the participants.

The semi-structured interviews were conducted face-to-face. I wrote the participants' responses directly onto a proforma of the interview schedule which was in plain sight.

Participants did not have access to the interview schedule prior to their interview nor did they take a copy of the schedule away with them. All participants were offered the opportunity to have a copy of the schedule in front of them while the interview took place. They either did

not wish to see the schedule, took the schedule but had it face down on the table or had the schedule face up. One mentor managed access to the questions by uncovering them one at a time. At several points during each interview the participants' responses were summarised so that meanings could be checked. At the end of the interview I gave an overall summary.

Participants were invited to add whatever comments they wished which had not been covered within the interview. Whenever comments were offered by participants they were written onto the schedule.

The flexibility of interview duration allowed for the development and clarification of issues arising at the time of the interview. This was important because of the intercultural circumstance of the research setting. For example, it became clear that some mentors had come from a professional educational context where 'mentor' and 'teacher educator' had definitions which were more clear cut than those used by mentors from other countries.

Being able to extend interview time allowed for exploration of questions which arose from the response which the participants were giving. These second and subsequent questions required involvement in active listening which is 'as important as the specific mastery of questioning techniques' (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 138). Trying to listen well, listen actively and trying to understand what that was represented in what was being said by participants was sometimes a challenge to me. I wanted to jump in, to interrupt, to rephrase to meet what I wanted the words to mean. I learned to hold back, to take a swift note of a word or phrase which I wished to come back to if this were not addressed as the participant continued. Holding back also enabled me to understand better the terms in which the participant was using a word or a phrase. This was important in the intercultural setting of the study.

Semi-structured interviews are useful in a mainly qualitative research setting which is and where the responses to enquiries are not necessarily suspected or known in advance to the researcher (Robson, 2014; Rossman & Rallis, 2012; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The form of semi-structured interviews is supportive of concept-development or concept-making rather than concept-testing (Robson, 2014; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). They give direct information about the operation of the initiative in practice in two main ways: from the standpoint of individual mentors who are doing the work and from the standpoint of a group of CCTs who are party to one mentor's practice. The interviews allow for explorations of expectations of the mentor work, and for explanations of the perceptions and evidence of the progress or impact of the work (relative success). Semi-structured interview provided a backbone to the enquiries which allowed the flexibility for participants to develop their answers idiosyncratically. This contributed to the range of stories which could be recorded about the initiative.

3.4.3 Participant observation

Participant observation accepts that the researcher is an actor within the research site and that their role may not solely be as a researcher. It is a method which can be used in ethnographic data collection (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003) because it offers freedom to collect data directly, without necessarily having specific recording schedules and so is amenable to researching social sub-cultures and little researched activities (Flick, 2002). The researcher's role is likely to be known to those who are participants to the research, the researcher might or might not be party to inside information about the participant research group, and that the access to the group over time might represent a privileged position or access.

Participant observation was used in the field to gather data from already planned work events. Participant observation opportunities took place in two main locations: nationally at the termly full team initiative review meetings and locally at initiative district and cluster meetings. Where feasible, at each type of event, information leaflets were distributed and consent forms (Appendix 12) distributed and signed. The intention was to look at the kinds of work which were done within the mentoring initiative and in what ways was it successful.

The data were mainly written directly onto a participant observation schedule (appendix 9). The schedule was designed to allow for notes to be entered at, typically, ten minute intervals. The utterance (what was being said, by whom and when) was written down verbatim as well as brief details about who had spoken and a response or reaction to what had been said. Mentors' presentations of their work at termly review meetings were videoed. The video material was transcribed verbatim.

The content analysis mapped local mentoring initiative documents against Dawson's framework elements (Dawson, 2014; 2010). Each element was used as an initial theme. A range of documents were analysed: draft mentoring initiative proposals, updated initiative proposals and terms of reference and qualifications and experience for initiative teacher educators. The content analysis used the initiative volunteer placement document (which was used to match the volunteer educator to the placement), project co-ordination agreement (PCA) budget template and a document about responsibilities for some of the parties involved in the initiative (Appendix 6).

3.5 Participation and recruitment

I decided to include as many members of both mentor and CCT groups as possible.

This was because of the timetabling, proximity, communication and other access factors which were experienced to a greater degree than I had initially expected at the point of planning the research. The location of the research in and around rural eastern Uganda and in central Uganda, required considerable distances to be travelled over often slow and difficult roads to meet people. Telecommunications links were often unreliable, of variable quality and expensive where they were in place.

3.5.1 Research cohorts

CCT and mentor groups comprised nationals from seven countries from three continents (Table 4).

	Participants' countries of origin	Participants having English as a first language	Gender of participants
Mentors	England, India, Kenya, The Netherlands, The Philippines, The Republic of Ireland	9/15	Thirteen female, two male
CCTs	Uganda	0/28	Five female, twenty three male

Table 4: some factors of mentor and CCT participant groups

Given the realities of the geographical location of the potential research participants, sampling had to be both pragmatic (criterion) and opportunistic for both CCTs and mentors. The

potential pool of participants (30 CCTs and 23 mentors¹²) was considered using a range of criteria to limit or to define the participants who would be invited to take part in semi-structured interviews. The solutions to securing ready and reliable contact with prospective participants were limited (Appendix 15). My main research interest was in mentors' and CCTs' understandings of mentoring and the mentor role. The result of my considerations about sampling was that the full mentor and CCT groups were invited to take part.

Female/male ratio: I considered the legitimacy of selecting participants according to gender but this was not the primary focus of the research. The mentor group was predominantly female – while there were two male mentors they were not in post at the same time. The CCT group was the opposite: there were five women in the group of thirty CCTs¹³.

Location in Uganda: volunteer educators were placed across Uganda, from Yumbe in the north to Bushenyi in the south (a distance of nearly 700km) but met once a term for a review meeting Uganda's capital city, Kampala. Each volunteer educator was placed in a college on their own and had a programme which was intended to be their full-time work (Busuulwa, 2010). CCTs were linked with a single college but were located for much of their work in co-ordinating centres in districts and municipalities across a land mass which, at 10,182.9 km² was about half the size of Wales.

Country of origin: the mentor group of foreign nationals came from six countries. They came from Africa, Europe and Australasia. All CCTs were Ugandan nationals.

¹² The original plans for the mentoring initiative placed one volunteer educator/mentor in each of the 23 CPTCs in Uganda.

¹³ In this respect, the CCT group were more representative of the primary head teachers linked with their co-ordinating centres, a mainly male group.

Length of time in post: mentors were placed across the country at various times, from late 2010. Three mentors were in their placements before I arrived in Uganda. By the time the field work began a further eight had arrived with three more arriving after the fieldwork began. As fieldwork began two mentors were expecting to leave within days. All but two CCTs were in post at the beginning of the fieldwork. Two CCTs were appointed while the fieldwork was taking place, both of whom had been pre-service tutors at the CPTC.

Length of time at current CPTC: until fieldwork began I would have minimal opportunities to establish how long individual CCTs had been in post at my placement CPTC. All mentors were placed at a specific CPTC and remained there throughout.

Present in person at interview in Uganda: I considered whether to contact mentors in their home countries were they to leave before I could undertake a face-to-face interview with them. The communication challenges which are set out Appendix 15 were pertinent and suggested that it would be preferable to have the interview in Uganda, and to have it face-to-face.

Language use: all mentors and CCTs used English as their day-to-day professional language to each other. All CCTs were speaking English as a second or subsequent language as were nine mentors.

Previous volunteering experience: volunteering experience might have been a basis of selecting mentors. This potential selection criterion was redundant as the research was to focus on mentoring not on mentoring as understood solely by mentors who had worked at some time, in some way, as an out-of-country volunteer.

Professional seniority: had the potential to be used to sample the CCT group but the type of seniority would need to be defined in advance: years in post, promoted post within college, leadership role (chair) of the group of CCTs in a district. If seniority were defined through years in post, then three categories would need to be clarified: total years as a CPTC and PTC

tutor, total years as a CCT or total years as a CCT at the college in which I was placed.

Arguably, the internal college promoted post (if it were known to me prior to interviewing) would have little or no direct relevance to the CCT role with which I was interacting. As to professional seniority within the mentor group, the range of educational backgrounds meant that equivalence of previous post would not be accurately or readily discerned by me prior to interview. I considered that there would be little marked differences in professional seniority as the same recruitment criteria were used for all each of the mentors.

Response to request for volunteers: the final factor that I considered was to interview those who volunteered to be interviewed, to offer an invitation the full CCT and mentor groups. My viewpoint was that this approach would be more likely to garner interviews from mentors. I considered that CCTs would be constrained to put themselves forward. This is to do with communality (Baingana, et al., 2010) and, in my view, to the interplay of hierarchy and workplace politics¹⁴ which would both deter CCTs from coming forward and skew the sample if they did choose to volunteer.

3.5.2 Prerequisites: anonymity, confidentiality and consent

The overall focus for the research is the operation of a working model: mentoring, within a teacher educators' education programme in Uganda. That provided opportunities for me as a researcher and some challenges. The route to understanding aspects of the mentoring initiative was mainly through talking with and observing individuals, not through originating or managing quantitative data. I had undertaken to ensure that the information was suitably anonymised at the stage at which I applied for and received ethical clearance (Appendix 5). As the study

¹⁴ Hierarchy which links professional role, family (clan) and gender.

developed, I continued to be concerned with ensuring that I did what I could to keep the participants' identities anonymous. To assure anonymity, all mentors have been identified as female and all CCTs as male, although both groups were mixed. Some local place names have been changed or omitted. CCTs and mentors are given pseudonyms throughout. A map to assist in locating the research ground as an area in Uganda's landmass is at the front of this document (p.11).

3.5.3 CCT group

The full CCT group at my college comprised thirty people from five districts and one municipality in eastern Uganda. Of these thirty people five were women. The leadership structure of the CCT group comprised five CCT chairpersons (including the CCT chair of chairs). All the CCT chairs were male. One district had no women CCTs. All CCTs were subject to short notice transfer from their posts (to another role within college, to another district or locality or to a different college). These factors led to my decision to secure as many CCT interviews as possible. Retirement and long-term illness eliminated two CCTs from the potential cohort. Two replacements were appointed from the pre-service tutor cohort of the college. Twenty-seven complete interviews and one partial interview were conducted.

3.5.4 Mentor group

The original plan was for there to be two distinct mentor groups thereby setting up the potential to compare the experiences and the perceptions of the first group (the earlier arrivals) with the latter group. This had the potential of sampling without losing the potential for representative coverage. I amended this plan to respond to the

actual placement dates of mentors. Mentors arrived in different combinations (singly or up to three at a time), from different countries and with different lengths of contracts. Some were coming close to the end of their placements as the research began and one was leaving before the end of their placement period. I sought to interview the full cohort of mentors. All fifteen mentors were interviewed¹⁵.

3.5.5 Participant inclusion issues

The decision to aim for full cohorts of the mentors and the CCTs was the result of a series of considerations in addition to those set out above. The mentors' cohort comprised mentors who were recruited by VSO on behalf of UNICEF and were placed with one of thirteen CPTCs. There was a tension between reducing participant cohort sizes and being open to and respectful of the range of potential responses from CCTs and mentors. This tension was resolved after considering a range of factors which might have been used to reduce the cohort sizes. The inclusion of some factors attest to the intercultural nature of the research ground. I had to decide whether to interview in English or not. English is my only language of fluency. CCTs would all be using English as an additional language as would most of the mentors. There could be no easy reliance on common meanings of utterances between researcher and participant. I would have to check meanings more than I might have done had the research been among first language English speakers and had it taken place in England. It would have been both impractical and unduly expensive to use a translator.

¹⁵ Two further colleagues were identified with the mentor role as national mentors. They and another mentor are not included in this research report as their employment basis and funding source differed from that of the Volpick-sourced mentors.

Confidentiality and anonymity needed to be assured. As English was the usual professional language of mentors and CCTs, conducting the interviews in English was in line with professional practice and it was reasonable to decide that English would be the language of the study.

3.6 Inclusion and access

This section looks at access to and recruitment of the participants. It looks at issues which were linked with inclusion and recruitment. The proposed research and the accepted research plan were discussed with the senior UNICEF officer working on the initiative. At my request, the officer secured appropriate permissions from UNICEF and the relevant MoES officials.

3.6.1 Issues with access and recruitment

The period over which the data were collected was extended (Table 6) to secure the fullest series of interviews. The strategies used to recruit participants and to identify participant observation opportunities were flexible enough to provide sufficient numbers of both. There were some challenges.

	Data collection period: semi-structured interviews	
	Began	Ended
Mentors 15 semi-structured interviews	29 th September 2012	5 th November 2013
Co-ordinating centre tutors 28 semi-structured interviews	12 th November 2012	9 th January 2014

Table 5: data collection duration periods

The duration of interview periods was made more flexible, covering an extended timeframe. This proved to be the right decision as the early interviews demonstrated that the data need not be time-located as the content was issues not event driven. Even so, there were two main events which had an impact on one interview set, that of the CCTs, potentially affecting that entire participant group. One was to do with the sudden death of an influential supporter of the work and the second issue was my sometimes difficult relationship with the then college leadership (pre-September 2013). The work continued but the pace, already somewhat constrained, slowed temporarily and then recovered.

3.6.2 CCTs: participation and access

The research plan was shared with the relevant CPTC principal. The management of access to the CCTs was agreed to be my responsibility. This adherence to protocol and hierarchy meant that the approach to CCTs could be relatively informal. The CCTs who took part in the semi-structured interviews were all staff of the CPTC at which I was based. We all knew each other. Of the twenty-three CPTCs in Uganda the college had the second largest cohort of CCTs, the range being from 17 CCTs to 42.

Over the course of the interview period, I issued and reissued my invitations for CCTs to meet with me as participants in the research. I reiterated the invitation in our regular monthly college-based mentoring initiative development meetings, I offered dates when I would be available locally and asked people to sign up for an interview. I also asked CCTs if they would meet with me at the ends of their working day, in their localities. As time went on, CCT chairs were also encouraging team members to sign up for an interview. I was unable to arrange a meeting with two of the CCTs. As involvement was voluntary, I did not ask why they did not wish to be involved.

3.6.3 Mentors: participation and access

Initially, mentors were approached to take part in the research through a presentation that I gave at a termly review meeting in July 2012. This was followed up by direct e-mails and face-to-face invitations. As new mentors came into placement an e-mail introduction and invitation was sent to each person or to the group. It was followed up by e-mail or an individual personal approach. Most interviews were scheduled around the termly UNICEF/VSO review meetings as mentors tended to stay in accommodation which was local to the meeting venue. Two mentors had experience of working in a college after a colleague mentor had moved on. This meant that fifteen mentors from thirteen colleges were interviewed.

3.7 Issues with data collection

The main issues were to do with undertaking the research in an intercultural setting where the communication modes differed from what I had been used to and where

English was the language of the research. There were other minor issues. I was in Uganda on a two-year volunteer educator placement, which was extended to thirty months (which was agreed in October 2013). I was recruited in England. I was based in eastern Uganda, linked with a CPTC and living about 7 kilometres off campus in a dwelling which would usually have housed one of the CCTs. I had had no previous first-hand experience of Uganda before coming to take up the placement, nor had I undertaken mentor work before. In contrast to all the CCTs and most of the mentors, I operated in only one language, English. The differences in language and background between me and most of the participants in the research were set alongside some apparent similarities: experience in education and at a relatively senior level within our own systems. While gender and ethnicity or nationality were not the focus of the research, it is possible that they may have had an impact on the research context. Uganda is a largely patriarchal and communal society and because I came to the research as a lone female it had implications for negotiating space, access and professional working relationships (Crossley & Vulliamy, 2010; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Storey & Scheyvens, 2003). Most of the CCTs were male as were all my college's senior administrators¹⁶ and most senior district and municipal education officials. In contrast, the mentor cohort included two men (one of whom took the place of another when his placement ended) and a pool of thirteen women. Within the mentor group there was no organizational hierarchy, the mentor structure was a flat structure whereas there was a hierarchy within the CCT group.¹⁷

¹⁶ Senior leadership and management staff

¹⁷ Tutor, senior tutor, principal tutor, CCT chair

The researched and the researcher

There are often differences between the researched and the researcher because of a concomitant lack of familiarity with each other's contexts. The several differences in this research suggest that intercultural considerations are unavoidable and are an element in the interpretative activity of the research. The intercultural context of the research leads to a 'moderate nominalist' position (Neuman, 2011, p. 92) understanding that 'subjective-cultural factors greatly shape all of our experiences with the social world, and we can never remove such factors' (Neuman, 2011, p. 93). Bryman's observation that social research findings 'are often, if not invariably, culturally specific' (Bryman, 2012, p. 74) is echoed by Bassey (Crossley & Vulliamy, 2010, p. 14) who takes cultural specificity to be present when the academic researcher develops research from their own academic standpoints or disciplines. This was noted to not be in line with the needs of teachers for whom research needed to be practical and able to be put into place in the classroom. This difference in research need and application requires a different approach, a practice-based and increasingly reflective mode of researching education (Crossley & Vulliamy, 2010).

The initial study: signposting understandings and misunderstandings

The initial study took place in term 3 of 2012 and included semi-structured interviews with two mentors and three CCTs. One participant observation was undertaken of a termly review meeting. This allowed for the research tools to be tested. The interview schedules were mainly accessible to participants: one question in the CCTs'

schedule needed to be rephrased as it was not clear enough. I became more aware of the possible misunderstandings and parallel meanings which arose from being a monolingual English speaker who was working with people who were mainly operating in a second or subsequent language. Early information showed that there was a difference in interpretation of the mentor role between mentors and CCTs, and that this, and expectations of success, were necessary areas to pursue. The interview questions were re-calibrated as a result. The initial study vindicated the flexible approach to data collection as the realities of travel distances, workloads and available time affected timetabling. I revised the data collection timetable to reflect this and to take into account the changes to the timings of mentors coming into placement.

The participant observation emphasised for me that naturalistic and narrative elements in the study design might offer an opportunity for participants to speak for themselves (Angrosino & Mays de Perez, 2003) which adds to the storytelling. I videoed work presentations as a participant observer and transcribed the narrative. This allowed for background data on other mentors to be within the data set. It also proved a long process to transcribe video material and precluded planning to collect data in this way in the full study. I noted that the information which was disclosed through these early interviews had to be separate from what I learned from my day-to-day mentor work. As a result of the initial study, as well as the changes referred to above, I changed my literature review framework to include a greater focus on the detail of the Ugandan education system and the recruitment of mentors. The data collected in the initial study are included in the full dataset.

Interview schedule amendments: writing, speaking and listening

The modifications to the interview schedules were relatively minor: changing the time frame in one question in the CCTs' semi-structured interview and changing the terminology in the mentor interview to include national mentors. The oral modifications have been greater and subtler. They have involved checking meanings - like the word 'post' to mean 'placement' or 'job' when interviewing a Dutch mentor or clarifying what 'average' or 'fair' means when a CCT is assessing their own performance.

Necessary separations

I considered that information which was gathered during CCT interviews might have the potential to affect the way in which I fulfilled my mentor role. This would result in the study moving towards action research. It was not my intent to undertake the placement as action research and I sought to ensure that this did not happen.

Separation of my daily work from the research was necessary to stop the research from being an entirely auto-ethnographic tract. The detail of the mentor placement work was decided according to local needs. The projected timetabling of placement activities left little time for other than the work at hand (see Appendix 16).

Communication was a concern. There was considerable unreliability of many communication modes in rural Uganda (Appendix 15). I found that full note taking and videoing resulted in my actively participating less in the meetings.

3.8 Data analysis

Dealing with the data required approaches which addressed facets of participant group and individual responses and to seeking authenticity through triangulation. Data analysis methods needed to be flexible and adaptive to the kind of information which was being collected, the way in which it was collected and the sources from which it was collected. This led to a version of thematic content analysis which was sympathetic to the constructivist stance of this research (Brooks, et al., 2015; King & Horrocks, 2010).

The process of data analysis took place in several stages which overlapped:

- local documents (Appendix 6) were mapped against the elements in the mentoring framework, the elements were used as the initial themes – interpretative coding
- each interview transcript was reviewed and annotated (Appendices 17 and 18) – descriptive coding
- interview transcript annotations were used to produce summary notes relating to each participant's interview (Appendix 19 and 20)
- interview transcripts were mapped against the mentoring framework elements, using the elements as one set of thematic categorisation (Tables 11) – interpretative coding
- interview transcripts were coded using some pre-identified categories and categories were derived during the coding process – interpretative coding

- participant observation data was coded with categories being developed during the coding process and contributed to contextual depth – descriptive and interpretative coding

Presentations of the data analysis are:

- Cameo profiles of a CCT and a mentor (Appendix 21, pp291-292)
- A table which sets out information from initiative originators against each element of the mentoring framework (Table 6, pp.128-130)
- A commentary about the findings set out in Table 6 and the presumptions behind the initiative origination (pp. 131-135)
- A table which sets out comparative information about each element using responses from the local documents and from responses from CCTs and mentors (Table 11, p.179-185)
- A commentary about the results which are set out in Table 11. This commentary identifies the elements which are used to examine the supplementary interview questions (4.7, pp.185-211)
- Persistent discovered themes, which interweave mentor and CCT responses (4.5, pp.170-177) and which were evident in the thematic analysis using the elements and the analysis in which themes were derived during the coding process. These are overarching, integrative themes (Brooks, et al., 2015)
- Responses to the supplementary research questions (4.3, 4.4, pp.139-170 and 5.1.2, 5.1.3, 5.1.4, pp.212-220)
- Response to the main interview question (5.1.1, pp.212-213)

3.8.1 Data analysis: structure

Summarising individual semi-structured interview transcripts and identifying points

of interest: I had manually taken verbatim notes of each mentor and CCT response during the semi-structured interviews. I transcribed the notes from the interviews. My own note-taking practice allowed for some word and sentence completion but where there was uncertainty about what was intended the note remained without addition and a gap was left in the transcribed text. Where they occurred, participants' pauses and requests for clarification were indicated in the notes. Each of the resulting transcripts (example at Appendix 17 and 19) was summarised (43 transcripts in total) and a summary note was appended to each. From these summary notes, I identified points of interest which were highlighted (Appendix 18 and 20).

Developing themes, collated background data and persistent discovered themes:

each of the interview transcripts was ported into NVivo 10 as a source. Thematic content analysis was used, initially coding each question then coding across questions. This generated many categories. This was both helpful and unwieldy. This was because it became clear that there were different types of data which were arising from the analysis and they needed to be considered, organised and distilled. The research was not centrally about frequency of responses (which information is mentioned most or least often) but is more to do with what is happening or understood in the mentoring initiative and why this might be (King & Horrocks, 2010; Braun & Clarke, 2006). Some categorisation develops around persistent discovered

themes which were common to CCTs and mentors but which affected them differently.

The themes were

- What CCTs expected of volunteers
- How CCTs saw their own professionalism
- Financing – views from mentors and CCTs

Contextual information

Some questions gave contextual information about the participant. I used this information to create cameo descriptions of a mentor and a CCT (Appendix 21). These were helpful as they personified data where it was in danger of becoming unduly abstract. Information was used to give an indication of degree of a response or range of a response. The information about degree added emphasis to responses. The information about range was used to construct tables (e.g. Table 5, Table 7, Table 8).

Additional contextual data was collected through participant observation. This included data collected in scheduled meetings and activities within the researcher's placement locality in eastern Uganda and during termly review meetings in Kampala. Participant observation forms were designed to allow for timed or interval noting as the researcher would be completing the observation alongside fulfilling the placement activities. This varied once where a continuous video record was taken of one of the termly review meetings where mentors were reporting on the aspects of their work which they had thought to be successful. This information underpinned mentor and CCT responses about the work which comprised the mentoring initiative.

The wealth of information from the interviews and from the participant observation was providing a vivid backcloth to the mentoring initiative but some focusing was required. Concentrating on specific features within the initiative required a different series of analyses but using the same method.

Using Dawson's mentoring framework and NVivo 10: the local documents were closely searched for information which related to each of the framework elements. This resulted in a table which set out what the mentoring initiative originators had envisaged in the year and a half before the initiative began, before the first person was placed (Table 6). It also resulted in a series of assumptions which appeared to be implicit in the initiative documents. Each of the CCT and mentor semi-structured interviews was coded against Dawson's framework. In this respect, the elements were operating as pre-set organisational themes. The summarised outcomes were set into a composite table (Table 11) which included the local document analysis. A commentary on each element was recorded (page 160).

Addressing individual elements: objectives (Element 1), resources and tools (Element 10) and rewards (Element 13), are set out and are used as proxies for expectations, work and success and were subject to further coding.

Reviewing the composite mapped table (Table 11) resulted in elements where there was similarity or difference between the responses from mentors and CCTs and the information from the local documents. There were three elements where the range of

responses or understandings seemed to be particularly varied. These were objectives (Element 1), resources and tools (Element 10) and rewards (Element 13). They also presented as suitable proxies for expectations, work and success which are the foci of the supplementary research questions. This resulted in some further categorisation within each of these three elements. The accounts of these resulting categories with information derived from other data analysis stages are set out (4.3, 4.4, pp.139-170).

3.9 Ethical issues

This section sets out the ethical issues which arose prior to, during and after the research took place. It highlights the additional degree of ethical consideration which had to take place due to the intercultural context of the research as well as that which arose due to the possible power relationships which developed as I undertook evidence collection in the field. The research was accepted by the Open University's Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) in September 2012 (Appendix 5). At that point the proposed data collection tools were submitted. In the field, these required little amendment. Rossman and Rallis (2012) identify three challenges to consider when reviewing ethical practice in the field, 'privacy and confidentiality...deception and consent...trust and betrayal' (2012, pp. 72-77). I will discuss each of these in turn.

Privacy and confidentiality

Researching in the field means that there were participants and they were known and visible. This meant that the security and the representations which were given to participants about the use of their words and of their identities might be partially

compromised by context. Within this work, there was wide knowledge amongst participant groups that the research was being done. No CCT alluded to the research with me directly or obliquely prior or post their interview: there was no evident curiosity. Mentors might have asked (rarely) how I was getting on but no one enquired except in the most general of terms. I gave no responses other than non-specific general responses but keeping faith with the participants and their information was something that I had to keep in mind. This is because the work and the research were taking place on the ground and it would have been easy to act on privileged information or to presume that others also had information when they did not. A difficulty of working remotely, being mobile and being away from a familiar professional and academic setting was that there were no legitimate and convenient places in which the research could be discussed while confidences were kept. Participant groups are identified as single-gender and some local place names have been changed or omitted. As a researcher who will not be on the ground to address any consequences of the interpretations of the research outcomes, these were appropriate additional safeguards.

Deception and consent

These were straightforward to address. I had an information leaflet which I gave out prior to and at interviews. The leaflets were also available in some participant observations. Often the people at the observation had already received a leaflet as they were also interviewed as individuals on a different occasion. I had consent forms for each type of interview and for participant observation. In group events, I emphasised that people were under no pressure to consent. Participation was entirely

voluntary. I acknowledge that there are some circumstances within participant observation where it would be unreasonably disruptive to seek individual consents. This was the case in the participant observation of a training session which was being led by Dutch academics. In this case, the leaflets were available and I had been a course observer on the previous day so was familiar to the group. My activities were open and undertaken with the consent of the trainers who also invited me to video the group's work.

During data collection, while it was impractical to offer people accounts of what I would derive from interviews and observations, I wrote notes openly and legibly. I shared the question sheet prior to and within the interview sessions. I reiterated, summarised and checked meanings throughout, and offered people the opportunity to receive a summary of the completed work (which all but one person opted for).

Trust and betrayal

These were central considerations. They became more so because of the particularly difficult working situation in which I found myself (see below, 'dealing with the personal'). I did the best that I could do, believing that work was the answer – I could only prove trustworthy by being so. This appears to be what occurred. Miles and Huberman (1994) also look at worthiness, reciprocity and honesty. The ethical issues surrounding the worth of the research can be somewhat subjective. In this work, there is potential for worthiness to be embodied in the drive to do the research. The impact of any outcomes from the research might not demonstrate worth to the participants but to a totally different set of people. This is to some extent linked with

reciprocity: there is no immediate and obvious benefit for any of the participants in taking part in the research and I was offering nothing. Some participants (both CCTs and mentors) remarked positively on the opportunity to talk about the work. In terms of honesty, I had no intent to misrepresent and the greatest strength that this research had was that I was present in country, in placement for over a year before the work became active. People had the opportunity to get the measure of me and to respond accordingly. I hope that that was one of the reasons why the participation levels were as healthy as they were.

Bryman (2012) identified practices which had no place in ethical research practice. These include keeping back relevant information about the research and causing stress to the participant (physical or mental). The way in which I conducted myself and the research ensured that none of these were part of the research activity. In terms of theories of ethical conduct, this research straddles the utilitarian and the ecological (Miles & Huberman, 1994) appropriate to the intercultural setting for the work. The utilitarian approach requires that there is trust between the researched and the researcher. This includes giving full regard to securing informed consent. There are limitations to securing full informed consent as the data collection methods in this research include some participant observation in settings where there are many individuals. Work in the field aimed to minimise potential harm or jeopardy in the research process and included participant anonymity and securing agreement about the extent of confidentiality of interview information.

An ecological approach requires that participants are brought to the research in a context of sensitivity to culture, language and environment (Rossman & Rallis, 2012; Smith, 2012;

Flinders, 1992). This approach to fieldwork permits some subjectivity and involvement and for outcomes to be conveyed in a spirit of responsiveness to context. The challenging professional context of the research contributed to raising my awareness of cultural sensitivities (Pring, 2012; Smith, 2012) and emphasised my responsibility to navigate through possible areas of misunderstanding or misreading as open-mindedly and honestly as possible.

There is a consideration of the boundaries of competence when considering an ethical framing for the work (Miles & Huberman, 1994). I believe that I became more competent as I undertook the work on the ground and that I strove not to have, in effect, wasted the time of people, by not being competent enough as a researcher at relevant times and in relevant ways.

Addressing the anticipated

Prior to the start of the field research I identified a series of ethical issues which I expected to encounter. These proved to be a largely accurate projection of the range of ethical issues which would need to be addressed but not always the degree. I have grouped these issues into three main areas: checking understandings, obtaining permissions, and dealing with the personal.

Checking understandings

This speaks to representing people's views fairly and accurately. The context in which I was working included interviewing and/or observing the work of nationals from several different countries (England, India, Kenya, the Netherlands, the Philippines, the

Republic of Ireland and Uganda). Except for the participants from England and from the Republic of Ireland, people were operating in their second or subsequent language. In addition to language differences or interpretations there were also cultural differences. I aimed to check meanings by re-phrasing, re-iterating and summarising at points throughout interviews as well as at the end of the interview. I invited comments and undertook to provide a summary of the research if the participant required one and left their contact details. I also put the form on which I was recording what was being said in full sight. This allowed for an atmosphere of openness within the interview setting. For one mentor, Dorcas, it allowed for a question about my use of the word 'post' meaning job or placement. This was a new use of the word to this Dutch speaker.

The intercultural context of the research was important to understanding and conveying meanings with integrity. It would not be sufficient for me to presume that I knew what familiar words meant and that these meanings were shared. For CCTs who were local language as first language speakers there were some English language usages which were received by me as somewhat archaic and which had the potential to misrepresent what was being said. I came to realise that the use of words themselves – as transmitted, received and selected, had the potential to lead to undue misunderstanding. Robson (2014) encapsulates the basic concern:

'issues of bias and rigour are present in all research involving people. However, the nature of much flexible design research is such that they are often particularly problematic. There is typically a close relationship between the

researcher and the setting, and between the researcher and respondents.

Indeed, the notion of the 'researcher-as-instrument' central to many styles of qualitative research emphasizes the potential for bias.' (Robson, 2014, p. 157)

If the research to be undertaken is set in a space where the researcher is an outsider and becomes less so over the period of the research, there will be initial points of difference arising from the perceptions of the world held by the researcher and by those who participate in the study.

Obtaining permissions

The research plan expected that there would be several distinct data collection methods including semi-structured interview and participant observation. Different parties needed to agree to enable the work to occur in the field.

This first issue represented a challenge to trustworthiness and honesty. While I understood that I had personal support for the research work (I had discussed the proposal with a senior official before submission) I became reticent to formally request permission in case it was not given or in case the work of the research was constrained within the terms of permission. This presented me with a momentary ethical dilemma. I had to consider whether my stance on acting ethically was universal, situational, whether it was in the end justifying the means or 'that we have no choice but to dissemble on occasions if we want to investigate the issues in which we are interested' (Bryman, 2012). This dilemma also presented itself when I had to consider permissions in relation to interviewing CCTs. This dilemma was again located in professional reticence again. I managed the situation by meeting with the then college principal

more than once to discuss the research plan. This allowed for opportunities for it to be queried by the principal and for amendments to be made. It also made the research work an open activity. This was important as I would be taking time out of college to travel to England in relation to the research and I would be asking CCTs for their time and their time was the responsibility of the college. If the college principal was not aware of the work, while it could have proceeded in some way the professional ground would have been largely indefensible.

In participant observation, I made clear at all points that I was undertaking data collection and requesting that consent forms be completed but I varied the approach. Within the termly UNICEF review meetings, and within the local cluster group meetings, I made a public statement and handed around consent forms for completion. Where a video record was taken of a termly review meeting, the video activity itself was shared so that a colleague videoed my presentation while I videoed other mentors' presentations.

Dealing with the personal

This is concerned with trust, honesty and confidentiality. By the time that I began the research fieldwork I had been working with CCTs for sixteen months. I had travelled to their schools, set up training and planned with them. I had been given small gifts (groundnut paste, for example) and had been seen in some testing emotional circumstances. I knew some CCTs better than others but I knew all thirty of them. As we got to know each other more the initial framings of each other had to be re-

assessed. Smith (2005), writing of the interchange when researching indigenous communities states:

‘My concern was to show that community people, like everyone else, make assessment of character in every interaction. They assess people from the first time they see them, hear them, and engage with them. They assess them by the tone of the letter that is sent, as well as by the way they eat, dress, and speak. These are applied to strangers as well as insiders. We all do it. Different cultures, societies and groups have ways of masking, revealing, and managing how much of the assessment is actually conveyed to the other person and, when it is communicated, in what form and for what purpose.’
(Smith, 2005, p. 97).

In addition to the basic responses to words or terms used and non-verbal communication, an issue presented itself that I had not considered. It represented as a challenge in terms of getting the research done and a challenge to the way in which the research was done. At its heart was a cultural and professional dissonance between the college leadership and me. I had expected that there might be variations in behaviour by participants during the fieldwork phase of the research. But the fieldwork exposed a version of truth about how the placement was being framed by senior administrators in the college at that time which I would have been unlikely to have been offered so fully had I not been providing a context in which CCTs could talk to me. This presented me with an ethical dilemma. Information about unsatisfactory professional behaviours which had had a direct influence on the mentoring work which I was doing was given to me as part of semi-structured interviews. I was not at liberty

to use the information within the placement nor within this research report. I could not confront individuals with what had been said during some of the interviews. I had to continue to act as if I knew nothing about the unprofessional activities which had taken place and were continuing to take place. This non-disclosable information also represented the point at which the outsider (me) was transitioning to being seen more as an insider. Quereshi (2012) in writing about relational vulnerabilities concludes that:

‘the nuances of the researchers’ and research participants’ vulnerabilities are embedded in their own contexts, and vary from context to context. While it is true that there are common ethical principles as well, the interpretation of these principles is not neutral or value free.’ (Quereshi, 2012, p. 109).

Through the process of research, we develop understandings. Our presentation of ourselves has an impact on those to whom we present ourselves.

Intercultural settings and the possibility of bias

The intercultural research setting leads to a greater range of opportunities for

explanation of what takes place within the initiative. Vuillamy et al. (1990) frame this noting that:

‘For expatriate researchers, much of their experiences of education overseas has an intrinsic interest, and immediately poses questions, by way of comparison with their different experiences of education in their own countries. Such questions can only be answered by gaining an increased understanding of the culture of the researched.’ (Vuillamy, et al., 1990, p. 167) .

The terminology may read somewhat archaically but the message is clear. There is an expectation that people will have an impact on each other. In undertaking research, typically this impact is seen in terms of possible bias (Cohen, et al., 2003). Rossman and Rallis write that 'the qualitative researcher is open to the interplay of what is considered fact and opinion' (2012, p. 48) and in so doing, reflectively try to understand what is going on around them in the knowledge that they will not be bias-free or 'completely disinterested' (Rossman & Rallis, 2012, p. 48). Non-verbal communication might be conveying messages which alter what is intended by the parties to the interaction. Silverman (2002) cites gender or pregnancy and how they affect the profile (the visibility) of the researcher (2002, p. 207). Differences of view can arise from a range of features which are linked with culture including language and language use and non-verbal communication (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Yin, 2009). Vulliamy et al. (1990) point to the interest built on comparisons between the education in the setting which is being researched and that of the 'expatriate researcher' (Vuillamy, et al., 1990, p. 167). I needed to be wary of the potential for misinterpretation. I accede to Kvale and Brinkmann when they state:

'in a foreign culture, an interviewer needs time to establish familiarity with the new culture and learn some of the many verbal and non-verbal factors that may cause interviewers in a foreign culture to go amiss' (2009, p. 144)

This presented several challenges about terminology, interpretation and responses. It was necessary to live with the discordance and to aim to interweave and to try out understandings. The complexities of the cultural differences in this intercultural

research setting gradually revealed themselves. For example, the advent of the use of mobile telecommunications seemed to strengthen the oral tradition. Face-to-face communication was expected as was waiting for hours for a promised visitor and travelling long distances to be told something which would be more efficiently transmitted by text message. This meant that my travelling to undertake an interview or having a face-to-face interview was a high status activity and was culturally appropriate. The nuances of working in the setting were considerable. I aimed to be aware of context and difference in cultural understandings and behaviours. As an outsider, I cannot be assured that I have been aware of all the important and necessary subtleties of the commonplace in Ugandan society.

Powerful relationships

My influence, power, authority and seniority were somewhat ambiguous in my work with CCTs. From my standpoint, I had neither seniority nor authority. I had no line management responsibility for CCTs. I did not have their experience and seniority within the Uganda education sector. Through the work that I had come to do, I had the possibility of influence and, with that, a version of power. I was looking at my involvement with the mentoring initiative from my point of view. If I were to consider myself in the placement from CCTs' viewpoints ambiguities also represent themselves. They would consider that I had an implicit authority and technical seniority by dint of being in a UNICEF placement. The notions of influence and power would be linked with the possibility of my being able to be heard by UNICEF, to draw to benefit to CCTs' work. These would have been the basic ambiguities which needed to be considered when I was seeking CCTs' co-operation as participants. They may have felt obligated to

respond to my requests or, within the interviews, give responses which they believed I wished to hear.

I had to revisit the impact of my personal influence, power, seniority and authority on the research process as it developed. An additional factor was operating which revealed itself over time was the antipathy of the then administration of the college towards me and the work which I was doing.¹⁸ This had the impact of confusing the professional development relationship as it created a cognitive dissonance for CCTs: an external senior person would warrant professional respect but this was being countered by a specific direction from college administration¹⁹. As time progressed, and as I moved from total outsider to relative insider, the ethical dilemma for CCTs was whether to disclose the negative reaction which they had been given by the college administration about co-operating with me in the placement. My ethical dilemma was how to respond as parts of the story pieced themselves together: firstly, out of the interview setting then within it. The detail of that dissonance is not the focus of this study but it underpins the complexities of powerful relationships. The power relationships where there was structural power and authority (i.e. me to CCTs, college administration to me, college administration and CCTs to each other), interweave with research trustworthiness and the extent to which there is informed consent in a situation where power plays are occurring. These 'relational matters' (Rossman &

¹⁸ Possibly, the way in which the work was being done, is even closer to accuracy. A range of cultural interpretations about leadership and professional responsibility.

¹⁹ This adverse circumstance relates only to the college administration (leadership) prior to October 2013.

Rallis, 2010, p. 382) are the long term development of relationships within a research context and were an area of continuous and sometimes difficult reflection.

Reliability and validity

Reliability and validity are treated differently in qualitative and quantitative research and the ground remains contested. The extent to which the research data provide reliable information which, after appropriate analysis, becomes an account which can be calibrated and replicated by another researcher is a challenge to assure within qualitative research and is replaced by other ways of addressing research integrity (Rossman & Rallis, 2012; Neuman, 2011; Sarantakos, 2005). I am in accord with this view as the primary purpose of the study is not replicability, although aspects of generalisability can be proffered. In this study, I have aimed to ensure inclusive participation and so am minimising bias in the data which is selected and collected. There are facets of the study which could be tried for fit in other situations, for example, the efficacy of using a specific mentoring framework (Robson, 2014; Yin, 2013; Maxwell, 1992) which is addressed in chapter 4. The tools used and the circumstances of the data collection, information about the research cohorts and their context, accounts of the research structure and strategies and examples of coded data are included within the appendices. Full data sets are securely stored and can be made available where a legitimate research request is made.

The case study features a range of data collection methods to check meanings and to provide a degree of triangulation. Direct interviews, use of a research journal, participant observation and document analysis provided a steer for the core of this

study. The context of the research involved working with the mentoring initiative for the duration of the data collection phase. Using a framework for considering document analysis outcomes from three data sets (local documents, CCT interviews, mentor interviews) strengthened the validity of the study given inherent reservations about validity in qualitative research.

The discussions about the limitations of validity and reliability in qualitative research are not intended to suggest that there are no ways of considering or evaluating such work. Sarantakos (2005) observes that some of the terms which are used as alternatives to reliability or validity are just different ways of describing these terms. This is problematic as qualitative social or educational research is not primarily about magnitude or measurement but about interpretation, realism and authenticity. Trustworthiness (Robson, 2014; Rossman & Rallis, 2012), defined by credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Bryman, 2012, p. 390) and authenticity (defined by ontological, educative, catalytic and tactical authenticity and fairness) (Bryman, 2012, p. 293; Guba & Lincoln, 2005, p. 207) can be used to look at what constitutes credible qualitative research. Real world research, which has involved an extended period in the field, contributes towards exploring and addressing some of these factors. This is because the relationship between people involved in the research and with the setting of the research can change in depth, openness or clarity (Robson, 2014).

3.10 Data collection and analysis: advantages and limitations

Advantages

The data was taken from most of the cohort of CCTs based at one CPTC and of all mentors recruited by VSO on behalf of UNICEF. Using data analysis software allowed for early preliminary analysis of responses. Moving from the software to manual methods of organising the data meant that the early close focus on the detail of the data was retained and drawn upon. When I decided to recode against Dawson's framework (2014; 2010) it was practical to draw on the already uploaded and saved data. Collecting the data over eighteen months was a strength. It increased the participation levels. I could review interview data over a longer term keeping in mind the changing context over the period which might have affected participants' reactions. Being able to observe participants in action while carrying out my role in the placement provided an addition to the contextual richness of the dataset.

As the impetus for the research had been my confusion in being identified as a mentor, a title and role that I would not have given myself nor have claimed, I was not confident that the job that I would do in the placement would be good enough. I believed that I had taken a risk in deciding to include this group of CCTs in the dataset because I was not to know in advance whether their data would make clear the weaknesses in my work within the initiative. In practice, I found that data analysis of CCTs' responses presented a different challenge due to the high number of positive comments about my work. I aimed to work with the CCTs' data as objectively as I could. In the absence of other mentors CCT cohorts, it may be that the CCTs'

comments from my placement might be non-representative of CCTs overall, but they are nearly the full cohort from my college and sit well in the context of a case study of aspects of an initiative.

Limitations

The data sets were extensive and required a good amount of winnowing. This presented the possibility of focussing on the volume of responses instead of on the relative significance of individual responses. I addressed this by identifying themes as well as mapping framework elements. Working with a data set in which most of the participants were working in their second or subsequent language meant that few presumptions could be made about the use of specific words and phrases or the incidence of experiences. This required me to check meanings more than I might have done had all the participants first language been English. This was a positive discipline for me.

As any unfolding activity, the initiative had episodes and developments which might have influenced the responses which mentors gave. Collecting the data over an extended period magnified this as a challenge. In addition, mentors had begun their placements at different points in the programme. Dealing with these factors required carefully checking through checkings meanings. Confining the interviews to the CCTs who were attached to my own college raised the possibility that their responses were unduly affected by their professional and personal relationships with me. This had to be balanced against the accessibility of CCTs at other colleges and the range of permissions which would have had to be secured before I could begin interviewing.

When the CCTs were talking about the mentoring initiative they were usually talking about my work with them.

Being a mentor myself, I had to protect the data which I had gathered during the research and not use it to affect the work that I was doing in the mentoring initiative. The necessity to keep the day to day activity of my own mentoring initiative work distinct from the mentoring initiative work of colleague mentors could have represented a challenge to the integrity of the research and could have altered the research direction, changing it into action research which would have to have been managed differently. In addition, my judgement was that the nature of the placement mitigated against a commitment to action research. This was because of the operational reality of the placement and because of short term and temporary nature of the placement. The placement was a full-time job for all mentors with obligations during college vacation times for developing and leading significant training. Communication quality and availability and access to mutually accessible locations required changes to the way in which the research undertaken. The fieldwork for the research began in September 2012 but, by that time I had begun negotiations with UNICEF to transfer to another college. Arrangements were well underway when I withdrew the request. Following this there was a considerable upheaval in the autumn 2012/spring 2013 which required formal resolution with the college, led by UNICEF and VSO. Addressing these issues had an impact on the availability of time to focus on the college-centred aspects of the research. In summary, the period of data collection was extended due to the challenges to securing the interview data in defined phases. The operational and administrative difficulties threatened the security

of the placement from an early point. The research methods adopted had to take this into account.

Conclusion to methodology

In summary, the methodology and methods used for this study were determined to be appropriate for the type of research which was being undertaken. Appropriate permissions were given for the work to go forward in an ethical context. Pseudonyms are used in the reporting of participants' responses or other reporting which might jeopardise their anonymity. The data collection process resulted in useful and considerable information being gathered. The full data set has been kept securely as per the HREC requirements, is anonymised and can be made available for legitimate further study.

CHAPTER 4 Findings

This chapter draws together the data collection to address the main research question,

How is mentoring understood in an initiative to improve teacher education in Uganda?

To do this supplementary research questions are responded to:

- a. What are the expectations of mentors and CCTs in a primary teacher educators' mentoring initiative in Uganda?
- b. What is the work of mentors and CCTs in a primary teacher educators' mentoring initiative in Uganda?
- c. What do mentors and CCTs understand by success in mentoring?

There is a presentation of data which relates to each of the three constituencies: the initiative originators, the cohort of mentors, and the cohort of CCTs. The first presentation of data (Table 7) shows the mapping of the first constituency: the mentoring initiative as set out in local documents (Appendix 6).

Using thematic content analysis, each of the supplementary research questions has been linked with a key element from Dawson's framework (2014; 2010). I discuss the expectations of the mentoring initiative through focussing on element 1 (objectives), the work of mentoring through focussing on element 10 (resources and tools), and success in mentoring through focussing on element 13 (rewards). The resulting accounts are detailed and give illuminating impressions of the complexity of the work and the responses of people within the initiative. The transcript data does not sit tidily

and exclusively into each element within the framework so there is fuzziness at the edges.

The chapter progresses with a presentation of the findings from the CCT and the mentor constituencies mapped against the sixteen elements in the framework (Table 11). This structure allows for areas of apparent homogeneity across the involved groups to be noted, as well as the areas where there is less agreement. The presentation also allows for a discussion of the suitability of using the framework for this type of analysis. During the data analysis, some unexpected issues arose which I have called these persistent discovered themes. They have been included in the data presentation with an accompanying discussion which draws out their relationship to the matter of the mentoring initiative (see section 4.5.1).

4.1 Framing the research from the first constituency: the mentoring initiative originators

Dawson's framework was devised as a mentoring programme design and specification tool but I found it highly amenable to this mapping of plan and practice. The framework comprises sixteen key elements which might reasonably be expected to be considered in a mentoring programme. These were clearly stated and allow for variation within each, suggesting that fitness for purpose was the most relevant metric. In allowing for comparison between mentoring programmes applying the elements to different groups within one programme allows for the exploration of

different perceptions and experiences of the programme. In a constructive way, mapping against the framework allows a landscape of the mentoring initiative to be drawn setting out the intent of the mentoring initiative originators and developers. The resulting picture displays the detail, fuzziness and ambiguity of the initiative in the context of the sixteen framework elements. I used local documents (Appendix 6) to map the intents of the mentoring initiative originators. Note that the documents variously described mentors as ‘teacher educators’, ‘international teacher educators’ and ‘mentors’ (DES and ITIED, 2010). When the distinction needed to be made, Ugandan nationals were called ‘teacher educators’ and non-Ugandans were called ‘international teacher educators’ (DES and ITIED, 2010). For consistency, I have mainly used the term ‘mentor’ to mean the educators who were recruited internationally by VSO for their placements in Uganda although the term most frequently used in the documents was ‘teacher educator’. This was the group who I interviewed in-country and whose responses are summarised along with CCTs’ responses.

Results of the document analysis using Dawson’s framework

Elements	Summarised results: pre-mentoring programme initiative: local information
1.Objectives: the aims or intentions of the mentoring model	Improvements in primary school literacy and numeracy, increased access to education, increased primary school attendance and completion. Improve the technical skills of key teacher educators through using a coaching/mentoring model
2. Roles: a statement of who is involved and their function	National education bodies, local government, CPTC administration and UNICEF (national and regional have assigned responsibilities: for co-ordination, project management, supervision and support)

Elements	Summarised results: pre-mentoring programme initiative: local information
3. Cardinality: the number of each sort of role involved in a mentoring relationship	In first two-year phase: six mentors in term 1 rising to twenty-three mentors in term 2. In second two-year phase: eight mentors. Each mentor based at a different CPTC. Mentors to work with a total of 534 CCTs, 340 DIS and 100 district education staff with work expected to affect every primary school (15,892)
4. Tie strength: the intended closeness of the mentoring relationship	CCT and mentor was the primary relationship. Between 17 and 42 CCTs in each CPTC. A weak tie if the relationship was intended as 1:1. Additional relationships with DPO, local school inspectors and other education potholders.
5. Relative seniority: the comparative experience, expertise, or status of participants	CCTs, DPO and school inspectors are senior within the Ugandan education system, with higher level education qualifications and lengthy education experience. Mentors were similar in seniority in home countries with specific experience required for the placement.
6. Time: the length of a mentoring relationship, regularity of contact, and quality of contact	The intended length of each of the two phases was two years. An outline of mentors' activities identified segmentation of the time for a range of activities both in and out of term time.
7. Selection: how mentors and mentees are chosen	There was no information about how colleges or CCTs were selected. Mentors were selected through VSO's international volunteer recruitment process.
8. Matching: how mentoring relationships are composed	No information about matching college to mentor or mentor to CCTs. There is implied inclusion of all CCTs at participating colleges.
9. Activities: actions that mentors and mentees can perform during their relationship	Activities for the mentor included monitoring, evaluation, three year, annual and termly planning, joint school and CC visiting and support supervision, workshop provision, support in implementing the revised PTC curriculum, liaising with NGOs and national government.
10. Resources and tools: technological or other artifacts available to assist mentors and mentees	The mentor was located at a CPTC. There are implicit costs for providing the programme and for travelling (truck and driver). UNICEF staff to support in unspecified ways.
11. Role of technology: the relative importance of technology to the relationship	Mentors were required to have ICT skills and be prepared to use them

Elements	Summarised results: pre-mentoring programme initiative: local information
12. Training: how necessary understandings and skills for mentoring will be developed in participants	No explicit training is indicated for mentors or mentees in developing mentoring skills
13. Rewards: what participants will receive to compensate for their efforts	No specific financial compensation is indicated for any participant. Mentors would receive the standard in-country VSO allowances. CPTCs would get access to a mentor for two years as well as a truck and a driver. Otherwise, rewards are to do with improvement of professional practice.
14. Policy: a set of rules or guidelines on issues such as privacy or the use of technology	Guidance on the conduct of the mentoring relationship is limited to a requirement for mentors to undertake their collaborative work respectfully.
15. Monitoring: what oversight will be performed, what actions will be taken under what circumstances, and by whom	Key national government stakeholders and national education bodies plus DPO, district education officers (DEO) and mentors had a monitoring role. There was to be a progress measure at the end of years 2 and 4. There was an emphasis on teaching and learning strategies and outcomes, monitoring and supervision reports, P3 ²⁰ and P6 ²¹ literacy and numeracy scores, primary pupils' retention and completion rates.
16. Termination: how relationships are ended	Placements were time-limited. There was no other information about termination of the mentoring relationship.

Table 6: summarised results of document analysis of mentoring initiative local documents using mentoring design elements (Dawson, 2014; 2010)

The process of mapping local documents (Table 6) against Dawson's framework resulted in two main groups of information. The first type of information demonstrates different levels of specificity against each element with some elements being barely addressed. The second type of information is inferred and speaks to assumptions which sit behind the mentoring initiative.

²⁰ Primary year 3

²¹ Primary year 6

Information about each framework element

Apart from **monitoring (element 15)**, in which many people are to be involved (including the mentor), there is relatively little information from local documents to map against the other elements. In the local documents, there was no information which explained how CPTCs came to be within the initiative (**selection: element 7**), to what extent there was a choice for CCTs to be involved, and whether any choices for involvement extended to the staff group who were to work directly with a mentor (**matching: element 8**). I consider that the position is more akin to assumption than compulsion: that CCTs would be in the mentoring relationship because they were already committed through their college administrators' agreement to involve the college in the initiative – there would be no process for the individual CCT to opt-in to the mentoring relationship or to formally exclude themselves from it. The benefit of the mentoring initiative (**rewards: element 13**) is inferred (pupil achievement, teacher improvement) with no explicit mention of financial or any other material reward or benefit for mentors or CCTs. The use of a truck and driver could be understood as a benefit as they are offered to enable the work to be done in the many localities but could also be understood as a **resource or tool (element 10)** along with the mentor.

Objectives (element 1) were set out and were demanding, with explicit expectations that the mentoring initiative's work would have a positive impact on all primary schools and all CCTs in Uganda. There were to be roles for many people at different levels of seniority within the Uganda education sector. This presented possibilities of multi-level, shared ownership of the initiative. The scope of the work is made clear when **cardinality (element 3)** is considered: the implication, which builds on the tacit assumptions inherent in the role distribution (**roles: element 2**), is that the mentors are expected to be highly influential if they are to drive change to the extent that the initiative documents set out. What the documents do not present is the

possibility of CCTs (and others who are to work with the mentor) working very closely together. This is conveyed through the element that is set out in the framework as **tie strength (element 4)**. As was set out in chapter 2, there are many mentoring models available and the mentoring initiative appeared to be expecting a mentor to work with a group of CCTs (a one to many model) as opposed to a more traditional 1:1 mentoring model.

The information demonstrates that mentors and their expected Ugandan colleagues are of a similar level of seniority (**relative seniority: element 5**), with a common core of having had experience of teacher education. The time that mentors had in post is clearly set down in the documents (**time: element 6**) as are the range of activities (**activities: element 9**) and the notional time allowances for these activities. Having both time and activities prescribed formalises both the expected mentoring relationship and the work within it.

Termination of the role or relationship (**termination: element 16**), policy which sets out the parameters of the mentoring relationship (**policy: element 14**) and access to training for the mentoring initiative (**training: element 12**) attract little or no mention from within the local documents. Mentors' capability and preparedness to use their pre-existing ICT skills (**role of technology: element 11**) was mentioned but there was no information about the way in which this would be put into practice within the initiative neither was there mention of CCTs' use of or access to relevant technology.

The document analysis shows that a deal of attention has been given to who should be involved in the mentoring initiative and the kind of work they might do and when. There is little explicit evidence of mentoring activity per se being promoted. This might be a function of

the limitations in formally organising for a mentoring relationship. The mapping shows that there was scope for a mentor to operate with flexibility and there is a high number of people with whom the mentor was to be professionally engaged. The documents do not include a definition of mentoring but instead set out the kind of tasks which are expected to be undertaken by the mentor: they describe not define the work.

Inferred information

The document analysis required searching for what was present in the texts which overtly related to each of Dawson's elements. What became evident were that there were assumptions behind the text in the local documents which were broader than the elements. These assumptions, which were mostly implicit in the mentoring initiative, underpin the construction of the mentoring initiative and allow the initiative's expression through the defining elements (Table 6). The assumptions are that:

1. Mentoring was a superior method for addressing the training and development needs of CCTs than workshops.
2. Mentors would be (arrive) well trained in the work that they had to do.
3. The mentoring initiative would require broad-based monitoring and evaluation from interested bodies and individuals.
4. The mentoring initiative would be of interest and relevance to teacher and teacher educator training institutions, inspectorates, examination bodies and curriculum developers.
5. Mentors would have a role in monitoring the initiative.

6. Teachers, head teachers, SMCs, parent teacher associations (PTA) and PTC deputy principal pre-service (DPP) would have no explicit role in the programmer's monitoring, evaluation nor have any other formal responsibility role.
7. The reach of the mentoring initiative would be national.
8. The initiative would be capable of improving every primary school in Uganda.
9. The mentoring relationship would not be limited to a dyad.
10. The mentor relationship with CCTs, inspectors and mentors would not immediately to be regarded as unbalanced in terms of seniority.
11. The mentor's counterpart in the initiative work was intended to be the DPO.
12. DEOs and regional DES would work jointly with the mentor to support CCTs in their work.
13. The matching of mentor and placement college would be informed consent. The mentees would not have an active part in the matching process.
14. Whoever would be involved in the mentoring initiative would know what was expected of their participation within the process and each person would have the necessary skills to do the work.
15. The mentoring initiative would run to plan; there would be no circumstances under which there would have to be early termination of the mentoring relationship.

In summary, the framework mapping has allowed for a structured view of the implicit and explicit intentions of the initiative originators. In the first stage, the mapping is only against intent, what was set out in plans and recruitment information (Appendix 6). The next stage allowed for the expectations and experiences of the mentors and CCTs to be mapped (semi-structured interviews and participant observation) and the outcomes are compared (Table 11).

An additional outcome of the framework mapping is the construction of a series of 15 assumptions which are part of the implied context of the initiative. I consider that the

information from the initiative documents set out in Table 6 presents a highly flexible and non-specific mentoring programme which was characterised by high ambition for its outcomes.

4.2 Framing the mentoring initiative: the view from two constituencies: mentors and CCTs

This section draws together information about the mentors and the CCTs. This provides a context into which the data arising from the content analyses can be set. This narrative account is developed from the summaries of the interview transcripts, the cross and inter question content analysis, participant observation and research journal notes. It begins with the mentors who had been recruited to work as volunteer educators.

4.2.1 Positioning the mentors

Mentors came from a range of different countries but were recruited following the preparation of a placement outline (Appendix 6). The volunteer placement was brought to mentors' notice in different ways, including by direct invitation from current mentors. Any undertakings or explanations given informally might have had an influence on the role that mentors saw themselves as taking on in the initiative. The degree of any influence is not known. Mentors had evident differences in what they understood that they had come to do in Uganda, and that included what the placement was called. There were two enquiries which set out mentors' perceptions of the role that they were now engaged in: firstly, what work they thought that they were doing and, secondly, under what job title they had been recruited (Table 7). The

responses are recorded in order of the interview dates (first to last) but not in order of mentors beginning their placements.

Mentors were recruited at several points during the first phase of the initiative. This means that they could have arrived in Uganda for their VSO in-country induction as the initiative's sole inductee or could have found themselves being inducted into the volunteer role alongside other initiative mentors and or other volunteers for other programmes. Every mentor would be posted to a CPTC as the sole initiative volunteer after a one to three-day briefing from UNICEF as part of the VSO induction. The induction period was where there was elaboration about the work at hand and, arguably, the realities ahead.

The expectation of most mentors was that they had come to the placement as teacher educators with relevant skills (Appendix 22 and 23). That was the task that they were prepared to do. After time in the placement there was some equivocation and the self-titling by mentors may be illustrative of the flexibility which was possible within the initiative. Mentors referred to themselves as teacher educators, mentors, initiative mentors and international teacher educators. Within these differences, there were differences in interpretation of the role required. There was little agreement over what comprised each of these roles. Mentor Sarah says that she is a mentor and that her work is 'building the capacity of the DPO [as a partner] and CCTs in implementing key features of the [initiative]' (Sarah, mentor, transcript, para. 30, India). Danke, says that she is a teacher educator, and states, 'I'm not moving from

that position. I am meant to run workshops. I am meant to train teachers and CCTs. I am meant to bring money into the college' (Danke, mentor, transcript, paras. 34-36, Ireland).

	Months in post	Perceived recruiting title (prior to placement)	Claimed placement title (in placement)
1	3	Initiative mentor	Mentor
2	24	Teacher educator	Teacher educator
3	21	Teacher educator	Teacher educator/international teacher educator
4	11	International teacher educator	International teacher educator
5	14	Teacher educator	Teacher educator
6	5	Teacher educator	Initial teacher educator
7	14	Teacher educator	International teacher educator/mentor or teacher adviser
8	11	Teacher educator	Mentor/international teacher educator or mentor/teacher educator
9	11	Teacher educator	Education mentor
10	10	Teacher educator	Teacher educator
11	2	Teacher educator	Initiative mentor
12	10	International teacher educator	Mentor educator
13	12	Mentor	Mentor
14	12	Initiative mentor	Initiative mentor
15	12	Teacher educator	International volunteer

Table 7: volunteer educators' placement titling

Mentors generally understood that they were recruited as teacher educators. This view changed after they had taken up the post. There was a swapping or changing of titles with some lack of clarity evident. Mentors were claiming mentor titles as well as teacher educator' titles with a deal of combination titling (Table 7).

The decisions made by UNICEF, prior to selecting volunteer educators through VSO, about what knowledge, skills and experience volunteer educators needed to have, appear to have been adhered to throughout the selection process. This adherence to

the person specification might have had an impact on the rate of recruiting volunteer educators and contributed to their coming into the placement at various points during the initiative.

4.2.2 Positioning the CCTs

As with the contextual information about mentors above, this section relies mainly on data from questions 1 – 4 of the CCTs' interview schedules (Appendix 7) plus research journal information and information from local documents about the initiative. Getting to grips with the work of CCTs and its scope was necessary as they were identified as the main professional group with which volunteer educators/mentors were expected to work (DES, TIETD, 2010). Information about the CCTs was relatively sparse pre-placement (Busuulwa, 2010). In contrast to mentors, CCTs knew what their professional title was. They all identified as tutors, although some CCTs used a title that denoted seniority (e.g. senior tutor) and or a function of the tutor role (e.g. a tutor working as a CCT).

Mentors were coming into placement to develop a role and a work programme which would involve CCTs. CCTs were already in place in their CPTCs. The work which CCTs were doing was expected to change in some way following the arrival of the volunteer educator/mentor. Using NVivo 10 for categorising the main job duties which CCTs identified for themselves, the following were generated: community mobilisation, mentoring (teachers in teaching and learning and head teachers on their roles), support supervision and CPDs (including refresher and training). There were many

other activities which were also claimed (Appendix 24). Taken together, I categorised all CCTs reported work duties into four groups:

- Education policy: dissemination, implementation and monitoring
- Professional and pedagogical: support and development
- Personal professional development
- Administrative activities

There is a deal of similarity in the work and experience of CCTs. This results in a less differentiated profile. The CCT group differs from the mentor group in two main respects: gender balance and knowledge of the locality in which they work. The CCT group is comprised mainly of men; the mentor group is comprised mainly of women. CCTs have been in post for some years and have homes near their co-ordinating centre schools.

4.3 Mentors: expectations, work and success

This section addresses the three supplementary research questions individually through a further level of content analysis after initial mapping against the mentoring framework.

4.3.1 Mentors: what are mentors' expectations?

This section responds to the research question which focusses on what mentors expected of the mentoring initiative and of themselves within the initiative. Their

responses are mainly drawn from responses to interview questions 2, 3, 4, 11, 12, 13 and 15. From the information about mentors' expectations, I found two main themes:

- what mentors saw as expected characteristics and qualities of a mentor
- what mentors expected that their tasks in placement would be

Characteristics and qualities

Mentors' interview responses suggested that they knew what they were expecting of themselves in the mentor role in the placement. The table below represents the range of mentors' expectations not the actual number, therefore repetitions are not recorded.

Leadership	Teamwork	Expertise	Soft skills
To run	To explore	To train	To be flexible
To implement	To build up	To improve	To keep people happy and positive
To have authority	To work with	To bring in ideas	To develop relationships
To plan	To be supportive	To give feedback	To be diplomatic (tread carefully)
To enable	To share	To achieve	To believe in the work
To motivate	To empower	To professionalise	To care
		To develop	To encourage
		To teach	To be practical
		To give	To be mature
		To coach	To be confident
		To design	To be understanding

Table 8: mentor-identified attributes for mentoring

As a group, the mentors represent the range of skills which might be expected to be drawn on within a mentoring relationship (Table 8). The evidence was that mentors saw that the mentoring role required a range of interpersonal, intrapersonal and other

soft skills, as well as the more familiar leadership skills. Dorcas had a clear view about the mentor role, expecting it to be supportive, transformative and developmental, to provide the scaffold whilst the structure was being built up and strengthened:

‘The word ‘mentor’ is very important as you help people to help [themselves].

At the beginning, you help more then you take a step back as after two years

(the length of the placement) [they] have to do it by themselves’ (Dorcas,

mentor, transcript, para. 81, The Netherlands)

There was professional ambition interwoven into Dorcas’ expectations of what the placement would offer. She had had volunteer placement offers for teaching posts before, being made aware of the mentoring initiative but ‘I know I am more than this, I am a coach/trainer’ (transcript, para. 22). Dorcas was keen to come to ‘an African country’ and take up the work because ‘you have some freedom, how to use your skills and I like that, you are more free’ (transcript, para. 22). Some mentors expected a thrilling experience from the placement, ‘this post presented as an exciting opportunity, as a very, very good challenge and well within my professional capabilities’ (Irem, mentor, transcript para. 24, Ireland). Irem, in common with other mentors, including Dorcas, linked her work with an expectation that she would mould that work according to her preference:

‘As a mentor, I am sent to support the CCTs and the pre-service staff. On my

own discretion in relation to the offer to them, I decided on teaching and

learning’ (Irem, mentor, transcript, para. 34, Ireland)

Rosalind structures the work ‘as it goes’ (Rosalind, mentor, transcript, para. 66,

England) and Federika ‘goes with my skills. I have a short time’ (Federika, mentor,

transcript, para. 33, The Philippines). The evidence was that the expectation of freedom to act was set in the context of available time. Time was considered by mentors as potentially problematic in fulfilling the mentoring work due to the duration of the placements and the locations of the schools and other institutions which were to be mentors' work sites. Many schools were in remote areas which were difficult to get to, even when conditions were dry and there was no wind. This presented a challenge to mentors' work expectations.

Mentors expected to work, they expected to plan and undertake a programme which suited them professionally, and they expected to use a range of different approaches in the conduct of the work. They could not control the overall structure of the initiative and the conditions on the ground. I found that the positive intents of the mentors were inhibited by the reality of the work context. Sian summarised the position:

'I think the model is a good model it's just that we are spread too thin. I have [several] districts. It takes two and a half hours to get to the furthest school. Time and money are wasted. [The programme/work is] not sufficiently focused' (Sian, mentor, transcript, para. 142, England)

What mentors expected to be doing

The data showed that mentors were confident about the skills and approaches which they expected to use in the placement. Mentors could consider whether their work might have an impact and on whom. Some concerns about the work were expressed

as expectations, about activities or ways of working which had been part of the mentors' idea of the work that they were coming to do. These concerns focused on the terms in which the placement was described, the scope of the work and the type of work. As noted elsewhere, all mentors, except for one, completed or extended their placement contracts. This means that the concerns, however pressing they might have been, did not lead to the volunteer mentors leaving. Brenda commented that the breadth of the job and the general nature of the work was a result. Brenda stated that the leadership of the initiative was outside of the 'recipient audience' (Brenda, mentor, transcript, para. 147, Ireland) and could lead to there being little impact. Justine had not expected to work with primary teachers colleges directly while Rosalind 'thought I would work much more in college [...] but the powers to be in the college are not really interested' (Rosalind, mentor, transcript, para. 32, England). Olivia expected to be planning with small groups of CCTs. Brenda thought that she would be 'addressing groups of teachers in the training college and groups of inspectors and senior inspectors' (Brenda, mentor, transcript, para. 24, Ireland) and Danke said, 'I had no idea what my work might look like, what areas to head towards' (Danke, mentor, transcript, para. 112, Ireland). Brenda 'risked, I hoped that I would manage. I hoped that we would have more guidance' (Brenda, mentor, transcript, para. 90, Ireland). Justine would have done things differently had she had other information, '[I would have] introduced whole school planning and instilled ownership by staff' (Justine, mentor, transcript, para. 83, Ireland). Federika realised that she came to the placement with some knowledge gaps:

‘how to work the system – who are the CCTs? How do we work with them?

Also, how do we work with inspectors – what do these inspectors do? Need to specify’ (Federika, CCT, transcript, para. 32, The Philippines)

Manuella thought that there was

‘[a] big misunderstanding. If, from the beginning, it was clear that it was about mentoring I would have started, could be a PTC tutor as well. For me, it was clear that it was a training the trainers’ context – training them in a specific context. I thought it [the work] was more clear and specific than it was’

(Manuella, mentor, transcript, para. 54, The Netherlands)

The hope which some mentors had developed for the placement and the difference between theory and practice was encapsulated in Betty’s initially buoyant statement:

‘When I was on the vehicle to [the placement], that job description is wonderful. I expected the best working conditions, ready CCTs, available DPO, schools – ah. I expected the CCTs working hard in their centres so I could work with them and mentor them well [laughs]. DEOs and DIS²² to be available, willingly going with me in the field, to do their work. A PTC that would welcome me – they didn’t either’, (Betty, mentor, transcript, para. 86, Kenya)

The other side of Betty’s early ebullient expectations, as she travelled to her placement, of what lay ahead was the expectations mentors held for the lasting impact of the work. I asked mentors a direct question (Appendix 17, qu. 15) about where mentors saw the potential for their work to make a lasting and positive difference. I

²² District Inspector of Schools

found that about three quarters of mentors saw their work having the potential to improve their own and CCTs' professional skills. For about two thirds of mentors there was an expectation that the work of the college, teachers and head teachers of targeted schools had the potential to improve because of the mentoring initiative.

About a half of mentors thought this of pre-service tutors (as a group). The group which was least expected to improve because of the mentoring initiative was local school inspectors. For some mentors, the access to improvements in inspectors' work was through CCTs and they were confident that CCTs would take the work further. Other mentors either did not focus their work on the inspectors or found inspectors to be disinterested in the work.

In summary, mentors were generally clear about what they expected to bring to the placement. Their expectations about the placement itself tended to be amended after they began the work on the ground. Time, distance, lack of information about the work context, these contributed to a mismatch between expectation and reality. This mismatch appeared to be mitigated by the ability to act independently within the placement.

4.3.2 Mentors: what was the work?

The previous section looked at the expectations of mentors within the mentoring initiative. The expectations located themselves around expectations of skills and approaches needed for the work and expectations of the work itself. This section

examines the mentors' considerations of the work within the initiative and responds to the research question which relates to the work of the mentoring initiative. It draws mainly on mentors' responses which were linked to questions 6, 7, 8, 11, 12 and 14 (Appendix 17). There were two main threads to mentors' responses:

- the itinerary-related day-to-day placement tasks
- the resources and tools which used for the task, which circumscribed and delineated the scope and the quality of the work

The day-to-day work

During interviews, mentors' work was reported by them as including running workshops, training head teachers and senior teachers, and being in school, working alongside teachers and CCTs. Within initiative review meetings, mentors were more expansive, describing amongst other activities:

- the methods which they used to teach reading
- their involvement in curriculum interpretation and implementation
- their use of SWOT analysis²³ as a planning tool
- the setting up of a workshop on multiple intelligences
- putting on an instructional materials exhibition, devising a lesson observation tool

(Termly review meeting, participant observation notes, 4th and 5th December 2012).

²³ Strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats: organised in a four-part grid.

In a subsequent review meeting, mentors reported on their work on curriculum development, assessment, motivational training, developing a school self-evaluation tool, promoting alternative to corporal punishment (review meeting, participant observation notes, 31st January 2013). These activities were entirely in line with the kinds of activities which were set out in the placement outline (Busuulwa, 2010).

The mentoring initiative expected that mentors would work with the deputy principals outreach (DPO), who were the CCTs line managers, and with other education officials. I found that only some mentors made efforts to work with DPOs and that there were varying levels of success, but Brenda's observation that 'to a small extent I work with the district, inspectors, college administration but this is extremely limited' (Brenda, mentor, transcript, para. 41, Ireland) was more in line with the experience of mentors as a group. Mentors tended not to differentiate their work with teachers although Olivia worked particularly with struggling teachers. Rosalind worked with CCTs visiting three schools per CCT, dealing with whole school issues, doing extended lesson observations with two upper junior teachers on each occasion, whom she then re-visited to follow up strengths and areas to work on which were noted in the initial visit.

Given that the mentoring initiative expected that the volunteer educator/mentor would work with local teacher educators (i.e. college staff, school inspectors and education officials) the data showed that the mentoring initiative's local work

programmes were planned by mentors. Mentors set out a working week which had them operating in the field for much of the time and coming back to their colleges for necessary administration tasks. They planned their work in line with outcomes from local needs analysis, local working patterns and funding availability. Their most common work partner was the CCT and the most common work venue was a school. The availability of school and college staff, as well as the necessity to undertake administrative tasks, limited the time spent in the field when this was not restricted by lack of funds. Irem's example of her working week sets out the weekly planning cycle clearly. She has a longer-term strategy which builds from the college-located activities. The work then moves off-site and into school-based follow up and evaluation:

'Possibly one day a week in the office and four days a week on the road. I am following through on a beginning of term workshop (two days) which has been used to set an agenda for the term. There will be outreach workshops at each CC²⁴ where I will be providing about an hour's input. I will be following through with schools which are affected (attending) and trying to discern impact and help to motivate staff' (Irem, mentor, transcript, para. 39, Ireland)

I established that funding was a major issue in ensuring that school visits and all the additional activities took place. This included UNICEF getting initiative funding to the colleges in the first place and then mentors getting access to that funding once it had been received by the college. This issue is developed later in the section.

²⁴ Co-ordinating centre: each CCT was based at a model school which was linked with a group of outreach schools. The model school was the site for a co-ordinating centre resource base where outreach school staff could receive training, an office for the CCT and accommodation for the CCT (Hartwell, et al., 2003; MoES, 2000).

Tools for the mentoring work

The work of mentors was intertwined with the resources and tools which were available to support or extend that work. Mentoring work had to be linked with what resources were available to help the work happen and what the possible repercussions were to the work if the resources were not at hand. Mentors were the embodiment of the materials and resources which were at the core of the mentoring initiative. The data demonstrated that mentors brought with them appropriate skills and strategies (Table 8). Danke cited her 'very good...performance skills' (Danke, mentor, transcript, para. 14, Ireland), Sarah her mentoring skills and Justine was practised at both people and organisation management. Mentors were experienced, as per the recruitment requirements, in the classroom, as school leaders, as education advisers and as curriculum experts. Within their number there was experience in programme design and planning, and in curriculum and pedagogical evaluation. Individual mentors had experience in primary English and mathematics, special educational needs support and school inspection. Danke talked about her knowledge of how school works coupled with 'huge enthusiasm and huge stage presence' (Danke, mentor, transcript, para. 14, Ireland) and Manuella of her facilitating skills. This positive evidence of the resources which were implicit in the mentor cohort and the tools which they could call upon and to use was counterbalanced by the limiting factors for the work. Since mentors had agency to plan their work in the initiative, I learned that they were not sure that they could operationalise the work. Funding was one part of this but there was also the reality of the broader educational context in which the mentoring initiative was set. There were multiple areas which needed to be addressed if the goal of achieving an

effective education for all primary aged pupils was to be attained. Mentor Olivia linked her intention to use her skills to introduce a different version of teaching with macro limiters (or system limitations) which, in her view, would inhibit progress and improvement:

‘What I had in mind to achieve was to take away the lecturing talk and chalk style of teaching, more child-centred, valuing play. For CCTs to go in with practical ideas – not just resources, [I] want to widen it so [I am] doing practical, interesting fun things [...]. Getting teachers to realise that children work through fun and play etc. – after nursery. I don’t think that any training is going to be very effective without lower class sizes, materials, stationery, books, classrooms etc.’ (Olivia, mentor, transcripts, para. 94, England)

This difference, which Olivia identified, between the vision of good practice and the resources needed compared to those practices and resources which were available in the context is relevant. It speaks to the consideration of the success of the initiative - which is examined in the next section.

4.3.3 Mentors: success within the mentoring initiative

The previous sections looked at aspects of mentors’ work within the initiative and the place of resources, professional and financial, in getting the mentoring work done.

This section responds to the research question which asks about success within the mentoring initiative. I asked direct questions about mentors’ views of their success, areas for development and the potential impact of their work (Appendix 17, qu. 12, 13, 14, 15). The mentors’ placements were time-limited, typically for two years. Mentors

were working within a UNICEF-devised programme which included initiative objectives, outcome indicators and the expectation that volunteer educators/mentors would respond to local needs (Busuulwa, 2010; DES and ITIED, 2010) I considered that, taken together, these factors contribute to mentors' constructions of their success within the initiative. Mentors' responses expressed personal and professional success areas and areas, where they had hoped for success. The sections below cover mentors' professional and the personal considerations of success in placement.

Professional and personal: rewards and success

The evidence was that mentors' overall assessment of success in their placement was varied and that their expectations of success were not necessarily overambitious. As an example, Federika links the capacity-building and sustainability functions of her work with what appears to her to be a small return. She accepts the high financial cost of the work as part of the sector in which the work is happening i.e. development. The implicit assertion is that the potentially small impact of her work is financially reasonable:

'I would be happy if I see really on the ground what we were having workshops about. One or two schools that would be enough but it is very expensive but that is what development work is all about' (Federika, mentor, transcript, para. 77, The Philippines)

As indicated in earlier sections, mentors expected positive working relationships and they expected to be able to get the work done. I found that some mentors located the professional rewards of their work in their relationships with professional colleagues

and in the opportunity to exercise their professional capabilities to lasting effect.

Brenda expresses the difficulties in providing tangible evidence of having left a sustainable impact, 'I built up very good relationships with CCTs and colleagues. I dare to hope that there has been a positive influence but [I] can't quantify' (Brenda, mentor, transcript para. 114, Ireland).

Some mentors gave examples of successes in their work: Dorcas points to a reduction or cessation in teachers beating children and Sian sees 'change in school: more awareness that they are seeing that you have to teach reading, that children don't just catch I'' (Sian, mentor, transcript, para. 110, England). Both success areas could be identified as indirect successes as they signal success through changes in school teacher behaviour. The volunteer educators/mentors were recruited to provide technical and capacity building support to teacher educators (DES, TIETD, 2010) including CCTs and inspectors. Their main target group was not the school teacher population. This characterisation of success may be an exposition of the freedom which mentors had to act within the initiative.

Some mentors wished to have part of themselves remain behind in the placement, a personal sustaining. Dorcas' statement about this expects that success in the mentoring work moves past professional instrumentalism and into core personhood, a fundamental appreciation of the mentor as a person:

‘My really (sic) success now is that they see really me, not any more just the mzungu in the village, they now understand the essence of myself and then work on the [mentoring initiative] teacher education programme’ (Dorcas, mentor, transcript para. 94, The Netherlands)

The personal reward expectations were markedly more commented on than the professional expectations. By this I mean what mentors got out of the mentoring initiative experience as opposed to what people with whom they worked or with whom they associated gained from the initiative. I consider that the fulfilment of the mentors’ expectations was the experiential success or reward for the mentors. The scale of the placement was a feature which mentor Manuella identified as positive. At the outset, she embraced both the status of UNICEF and the expected financial support for the work, but after having had experience in the placement eschewed these as being ‘unsustainable’ (Manuella, mentor, transcript, para. 21). Generally, mentors were looking for new experiences, they were interested in working outside of their home countries and they preferred working in Africa. For some mentors, it was their first time working in Africa but mentors, as a group, had prior experience of working in Malawi, Zambia and Uganda. There was something about Africa which appealed. That appeal was in history and mystery: ‘It was interesting, to be in this place where human life began. It was interesting to me’ (Sarah, mentor, transcript para. 77, India). There was an appeal in the work which was in the opportunity to do good and to give back. Brenda and Karis described this phenomenon in different ways:

‘For years I had hoped for an opportunity for a very different cultural experience. Going to England was different but I wanted to go to somewhere

in a Third World context. I postponed it – financial – so waited until early retirement. I did it for myself. I hoped to offer something in Africa or Asia’
(Brenda, mentor, transcript para. 31, Ireland)

‘I really feel like ever since I was young I was blessed – everything that I wanted I didn’t have to do anything. It was a way of giving back, blessings from people, opportunities, material things – so wanted to do this before settling down’
(Karis, mentor, transcript para, 33, The Philippines)

The underlying opportunity for personal development is a recurring theme in mentors’ responses. They tended to find that this aspect of expectation was met. While Sharleen was ‘bored at home’ (transcript para, 21, England) Dorcas wanted ‘some freedom, how to use your skills, and I like that, you are more free’ (Dorcas, mentor, transcript, para. 154, The Netherlands) and Sian wanted ‘flexibility’ and ‘definitely wanted to come to Africa’ (Sian, mentor, transcript, para. 24, England). These personal expectations led to some highly satisfactory outcomes for mentors. Lisel, who ‘wanted to be a pioneer’ (Lisel, mentor, transcript, para. 74, The Netherlands) found that she ‘had the freedom to do my own thing’ (Lisel, mentor, transcript, para. 74, The Netherlands) and Rosalind and other mentors fulfilled a longstanding promise for retirement. Karis identifies herself as ‘lucky’ to have taken up the placement:

‘I want to thank UNICEF in a big way. A unique opportunity to give me a chance to be part of the programme. An opportunity to know myself better in so many aspects of my life’ (Karis, mentor, para. 154, The Philippines)

Brenda acknowledges the scale of the mentoring initiative as she reflects that:

‘Viewed as a whole package, given that I am the end of the two years, it has been hugely worthwhile, rewarding and empowering experience. It’s been wonderful and at the same time, because the canvas was so huge, because the job was so unspecific, and being led by people outside of the recipient audience it would seem that the effect is possibly quite small. The effect on me has been huge. I am happy’ (Brenda, transcript, para. 142, Ireland)

In summary, mentors were undecided, as a group, about the extent of the impact of the work, whether it had been a success or whether it would sustain. Mentors responses tend towards personal reward (challenge, cultural difference, ambition) as they identify success issues within the mentoring initiative. The soft skills (Table 8) which were included in mentors’ expectations of their mode of work, provided a counterpoint to the prevailing pedagogic climate in some schools. Some success was reported in securing behavioural and pedagogical change and improvement in some schools and classrooms. The conditions in which mentors worked were materially advantageous but overall the challenges, including addressing specific representations of professional responsibility, inhibited deep or certain sustainability of the monitoring initiative work.

4.4 CCTs: expectations, work and success

The sections above looked at expectations, work and success of the mentoring initiative from the point of view of the mentors within the initiative. The following

sections consider these issues from the responses of CCTs. In turn, the sections respond to each of the supplementary research questions which relate to expectations work and success within the mentoring initiative. The CCTs come from one college, the one at which I was placed and at which I undertook the work of the mentor. This means that when CCTs are commenting on the mentoring work which has been done, by dint of being in the field with them as their mentor, I am aware of some of the detail and of the circumstances behind some of the comments or events. I have aimed for CCTs voices to be evident within the following account.

4.4.1 CCTs: expectations of the mentoring initiative

This section begins the exploration of the CCTs' views on each of these issues and looks to respond to the research question about CCTs' expectations of the initiative. Their observations come mainly in response to questions 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 14, 16 and 17 (Appendix 18). CCTs had perceptions and expectations of the mentoring initiative. In this study, I identify these as constituting implied objectives for the work. Following analysis of the CCT transcripts, I organised their responses about expectations into three areas:

- the attributes which they expected in a mentoring relationship
- the activities which could take place
- the volunteer's role in the placement

Access to funding and resources was also an aspect of expectations and this is addressed in a separate section as it was an overarching issue. CCTs' expectations

were linked to their experience of working with foreign volunteers and to having previously been party to programmes led by UNICEF in particular.

Attributes of mentors from the CCT point of view

There was a great deal of consensus on the attributes which CCTs expected in a mentor. Early CCT interviews identified the mentor as being expected to have a guidance function. As time went on, mentions of this function diminished and the later predominant expectations were for a mentor to help and support CCTs in their work. The mode of the mentor's work was variously described 'getting people together' (Keiron, CCT, transcript, para. 108, Uganda) or having 'brought us together' (Merville, CCT, transcript, para. 99, Uganda). The mentor was also expected to be 'consultative' (John Aaron, CCT, transcript, para. 162, Uganda) and to challenge, to improve the quality of education, to identify gaps, to plan, to train. The mentor was expected to supervise, re-activate, re-tool, retrain and empower CCTs. To do this, John Aaron expected the mentor to be expert (John Aaron, CCT, transcript, para. 108, Uganda), Bewford required the mentor to be knowledgeable. James Patrick and Amos Melmen wanted a mentor to have prior educational experience. I consider that the functions of the later phases of the interview sequence (and of the placement itself) may be affected by the work which CCTs had experienced from the mentor. In the earlier stages, the expectations of the mentor were realistically limited to guidance. This broadened to practical support when the capability of the mentor had been demonstrated.

What CCTs expected the mentors to do

Mentors were coming into settings with which CCTs were already familiar and experienced. CCTs had opinions about what work they expected of a mentor. These differ in some part from the expectations which CCTs had of volunteers, which are set out elsewhere. The work of the CCT is itself wide-ranging, with CCTs required to represent government education policy, mobilise communities, undertake support supervision as well as having mentoring, guidance and counselling remits. They expected no less activity of a mentor. The main area in which CCTs expected a mentor to operate was in schools, providing both challenge and support with a view to securing quality education. CCTs expected a mentor to target their work and, with the CCT, address areas of shortfalls, by helping ‘to move to schools identifying the real problems that hinder performance and find possible solutions’ (Amos Melmen, CCT, transcript, para. 98, Uganda) and to ‘develop the teacher educators for quality education and for quality service delivery in primary schools’ (Augustus, CCT, transcript, para. 118, Uganda).

4.4.2 CCTs: work and the resources to do the mentoring work

The previous section focused on responses to the research question which asked about CCTs’ expectations of the mentoring initiative. This section takes on the research question which looks at CCTs’ and mentors’ work within the mentoring initiative. It calls on comments mainly found in questions 5, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15 and 16 (Appendix 18).

CCTs identifying mentoring work and resources

Mentors' work in schools was expected by CCTs to be mainly located around the teacher in the classroom, assisting teachers with developing schemes of work, improving the quality of their performance and those of their pupils. In explaining this viewpoint, one CCT said that the teacher needed to be assisted 'to perfect them on their roles' (Aaron, CCT, transcript, para. 111). CCTs did not think that the mentor's function was primarily to improve or to change the CCTs professional practice to effect improvements in the classroom.

Drawing together their comments about resources, I took a wide view and included activities as well as artifacts. Resources were a central part of CCTs' expectations before the mentoring initiative began. As the work progressed CCTs could recount what resources and tools had been made available (Table 9). The responses were organised into five categories. As with Table 8 the items in each category are not calibrated according to frequency of occurrence, but according to the fact of occurrence.

The number of items in Table 9 is considerable. As with the comments about CCTs' expectations of a mentor in an earlier section (where the early request was for someone who would offer guidance then later the comments expanded to more operational activities), the range of comments about resources in the work in the mentoring initiative increased as the initiative developed. Many of the points made about resources came in response to a question which asked CCTs how the work of the mentoring initiative had helped or hindered their own work.

Skills development	Meetings	Trainings	Materials	Other
Support supervision	Cluster meetings - operational (CC-based)	Work planning	Scholastic materials (from UNICEF)	Joint fieldwork
Mentoring		Computer literacy		Funding
Computer literacy	District meetings – strategic	Video: still and moving	Airtime	Exchange visits
Using video in support supervision	CPTC meetings – development	Support supervision	Transport	School audit
Work planning: joint and district	Review meetings	Professional teaching practice clinics	Documents (workbooks, newsletters, handouts)	Time management
Problem-solving		Assessment data analysis	Diary	Developing model and satellite schools
Relationship development				Encouraging teacher preparation

Table 9: resources and tools which CCTs identified as associated with the mentoring initiative

There were no adverse comments and the more subtle impact of the developmental resourcing came through in the comments of some CCTs. Matthew said that his work habits had improved:

‘My daily professional practice has changed from a lesser degree, it has changed in performance and practice. I used sometimes to ignore the making of work plans but when you brought this element of making work plans as a district – you cannot hide – even if you cannot [write the work plan] as an individual you are able to do it as a group’ (Matthew, CCT, transcript, paras. 146 – 148, Uganda)

Paul, in a climate where developing a reading culture amongst adults remains a priority (Mlay, et al., 2015; Stranger-Johannessen, 2014), had distributed mentoring initiative literature to the co-ordinating centres (CCs) and ‘involved teachers and children in

making newsletters’ (Paul, CCT, transcript, para. 156, Uganda). For Amos Melmen, the effect of the resources and tools has broadened his work activity,

‘It has encouraged me to do more. When I talk of doing more I have already identified gaps and have addressed it. Teachers have initiative work plans – each week. These are the things that have been lacking. Make sure that you also incorporate the other things that need to be done in the school’ (Amos Melmen, CCT, transcript, para. 134, Uganda)

To summarise, for CCTs, the mentoring work was not identified as their own but, as the mentoring initiative continued, CCTs acknowledged the value of a range of activities, events and resources which were part of the mentoring work and which they found helped them in their own work.

4.4.3 CCTs: aspects of success: professional support, professional skills and personal support

This section gives information about CCTs views of success in mentoring. It calls mainly on responses from questions 6, 10, 14, 15 and 16 (Appendix 18). As with mentors, an account of success includes whether and to what extent CCTs got what they wanted from the mentoring initiative. It might be that this is the main enquiry as CCTs were intended by the initiative originators to be a key target group for the mentoring work. The activities, events and resources which were commented upon favourably in the previous section are part of the assessment of mentoring success as it was played out in the initiative at the CCTs’ college. CCTs’ responses are further

positioned towards rewards in three main areas: professional skills, financial and interpersonal; professional support.

CCTs: professional skills - rewards

Their own professional development was a feature that CCTs did not initially identify as part of their expectations for, or work of, the mentoring initiative. They had expectations of mentoring and mentoring work, but not as it applied to themselves. A consideration of why this might be the case is set out in a section on CCTs' perceptions of their own work. I found that, even with this reservation (except for James Andrew whose interview had to be finished early), every CCT identified the mentoring initiative as having the potential to improve their professional skills and then accompanied this response with examples of how this had already occurred. The examples given by CCTs were more specific as the initiative progressed. The first CCT interviewed, John Aaron, stated that, 'you have given me skills – computer, videotape, support supervision and mentoring' (John Aaron, CCT, para. 146, Uganda) while eight months later CCT Paul can list as benefits of the work:

'Building [work] programmes, school visits, work plans – jointly, workshops and facilitating the workshops to take place, materials, finance: logistics, refreshments and food, video shoots: [we] reveal the situation on the group and [we] have used that to cause improvement in individual primary teachers [we] worked with, materials production [in] initiative schools and non-initiative schools, organised ICT skills training and nearly everyone is at some level' (Paul, CCT, transcript, paras. 115-126, Uganda)

Within Paul's list are recurring themes which other CCTs identify about the benefits of the work. CCTs, who are experienced in support supervision, recognised the initiative as 'giving new skills on how to give support supervision' (Bewford, CCT, transcript, para. 130, Uganda). Augustus talked about CCTs being 'exposed' to new methodology through exchange visits while Merville, CCT, finds himself 'empowered in terms of different methodologies for teaching' (Merville, CCT, transcript, para. 108, Uganda). Melville goes on to cite the development of working together as a strategy which has been successful in unexpected ways:

'I have also been helped to work in team work – it has been inculcated in me. From our visitations, we begin by appreciating whatever little we have seen. That has made my work easier – teachers are not now dodging or escaping. I have been empowered in ICT skills. Facilitation has helped us in some [ways] to realise this' (Merville, CCT, transcript, para. 108, Uganda)

There is a strong message in the CCTs' responses that they were being enabled to build their professional skills in essential elements such as work planning, assessment data and analysis, identifying and reporting on teaching quality, suitable use of teaching and learning resources, and working with head teacher on improving aspects of the school offer: 'it has helped me to identify good practice. If I see a good practice in the school, I can take it to the other school' (Albert, CCT, transcript, para. 133, Uganda).

Andrew had seen that the improvement in supervision skills had meant that 'instead of going to schools and harassing teachers you [can] build on good practices' (Andrew, CCT, transcript, para. 107). This is a view with which Joel concurred:

‘I have also seen that the way I work the head teachers and teachers appreciate – like when I do a training they will say’ was a good training’ – ‘marvellous’ – an improving situation’ (Joel, CCT, transcript, para. 130, Uganda)

Other softer skills were also being built up: Augustus and Joel talked of openness and accountability, which related not just to sharing knowledge about what resources and funds are available to do the work but expecting them to be accounted for. This was a clear benefit of the initiative as the practice previously had been a lack of full disclosure about what any funds received had been spent on (which was encouraged by the intermittent allocation of funds to CCTs to do their work). Augustus explains:

‘you declare to us what is available and you have it. That openness has not been very easy for most people [...] after everything [events or activities we] give in what is needed. This has not happened before – we do this from working with you – people have loved doing this’ (Augustus, CCT, para. 175-176, Uganda)

Regular meetings at college, in district administrative offices, in co-ordinating centres and in link schools were welcomed because, with joint planning and the involvement of partners from the districts, programme planning became better and time management improved:

‘my work has been so much helped by your work – it has enabled me to know more in what I have to do in the field. It has kind of mentored me more than the college that sent me out. You have transported me to school and then observed, given feedback to schools’ (Malachi, CCT, transcript, para. 148, Uganda)

and Thomas remarks that,

‘in the first place, it has improved time management – we hold meetings with district, officers and schools. It has brought in nearness. It has also helped us to compare notes with other areas – that did not exist before’ (Thomas, CCT, transcript, para. 136-138, Uganda)

Joel had learned ‘how to programme the activities, beating deadlines for work, accounting and reporting timely (sic)’ (Joel, CCT, transcript, para. 115, Uganda). These benefits from the mentoring initiative were not necessarily expected by CCTs. The focus of external programmes tended not to locate with the CCT except as a trainer or monitor (DES and ITIED, 2010; O’Sullivan, 2010). This left CCTs’ in-service development, at their own professional level, somewhat neglected. Paul said that, ‘as an individual, I didn’t expect to do much’ (Paul, transcript, para. 143, Uganda), Andrew states, ‘we were not expecting very much’ (Andrew, CCT, transcript, para. 112, Uganda) and Wilbur observes, ‘we now co-operate and work as a team through networking’ (CCT, transcript, para. 70, Uganda). Statements from three CCTs encompass the overall benefits and rewards which resulted from the mentoring initiative. Matthew points to the differences in pupils’ performance:

‘The difference in performance in the schools is positively changing. These initiative indicators are being in these schools. You know the situation here you would imagine it is difficult to change anything’

[Talks about one of his initiative model schools which got one division 1 in the PLE in 2012 – from the grassroots and as a remote school they were able to get one division 1].

‘I didn’t expect improvements, especially in that school’ (Matthew, CCT, transcript, para. 119, Uganda)

Peter is specific about an aspect of pedagogy which he has been able to take forward, ‘the initiative has left me as a change agent as a CCT especially my teaching capacity about concept development’ (Peter, CCT, transcript, para. 128, Uganda). Samuel focusses more globally on what he could get access to and to his own professional growth:

‘In fact, what the initiative has done is more than what we had expected in terms of facilitation, training, buying training materials, guidance and counselling and in terms of helping the teachers in the teaching process both in the pre-service and in outreach’ (Samuel, CCT, transcript, para. 110, Uganda)

The CCTs can identify gains in their own professional development and learning which they now apply to the work that CCTs commonly do in schools. There is an echo of surprise at change and improvement happening.

CCTs: financial and interpersonal professional support

When CCTs talked about the success in the mentoring work, in addition to professional development they also commented on financial and interpersonal support. The evidence showed that supply of funding for the initiative was necessary for CCTs to continue their day-to-day work. For Samuel, ‘if [the initiative] hadn’t given materials I don’t think I would have been able to do my work’ (Samuel, CCT, transcript, para. 57, Uganda). The funding from the initiative was recognised as enabling, as when the funds were available ‘I can go to supervise support supervision in my schools’ (James

Peter, CCT, transcript, para. 136, Uganda). James Peter expands his viewpoint and indicates where he has used the initiative funding:

‘I have conducted cluster meetings with my ten schools. I have also been able to travel to other districts. [The mobile phone airtime] has also helped me to communicate with teachers and head teachers [...] and [funding] also to helped to improve on our welfare [and for cluster and district meetings] have also been able to provide snack and transport back to where they came’ (James Peter, CCT, transcript, para. 137, Uganda)

I found that there is a fuzzy line between CCTs’ professional and personal use of resources. The CCTs were intended to live at their CCs and to provide training at these regularly. This meant that the initiative resources (writing, presentation and other support materials) were used wherever the CCTs needed to use them. An example of this is Paul (CCT) explaining that the materials (workbooks, newsletters, handouts) which were produced for the initiative participants were also passed on by him to non-initiative schools. By way of explaining the dilemma in which CCTs found themselves, that is, having to provide professional support to their schools without sufficient and reliable resourcing, Paul told me, ‘that is what is keeping us ticking and you think it is something very important and you are told that there is even no finance to get you back’ (Paul, CCT, transcript, para. 125 – original emphases, Uganda). In doing their work, the study found that CCTs had improved their interpersonal and organisational skills. Fred talks of being helped to ‘enrich our support supervision’ (Fred, CCT, transcript, para. 165, Uganda) and ‘to focus on particular issues at a time and the handling of one thing at a time makes it easier to implement’ (Fred, CCT, transcript,

para. 165, Uganda). He talks of the regular meetings with the district education officials as ‘making them closer’ (Fred, CCT, transcript, para. 165, Uganda) echoing nearness, the sense of community, which was referred to earlier. James Patrick talks of being ‘helped in awakening the teacher impact’ (James Patrick, CCT, transcript, para. 128, Uganda) and that ‘it has everyone who is concerned more touched on the professional part of teaching. That’s how I see it’ (James Patrick, CCT, transcript, para. 128, Uganda).

James Patrick goes further to identify how it has developed his confidence, which has been built through his professional experiences within the initiative resulting in his being able to

‘go into school and you know what to look for in teaching and learning. It has also helped in the area of assessment and its relevance in schools. And besides that, it has given me the emphasis on hard documentation at the co-ordinating centre and in the school – real evidence of work’ (James Patrick, CCT, transcript, para. 145, Uganda)

The honing of CCTs interpersonal skills through the work on the initiative is evidenced by others. The interface between the CCT and other professionals people (mainly school staff) could be problematic, but Augustus talks about the mentor guiding CCTs on ‘how to handle issues – you have to study the problem and handle it maturely. There is no more ‘fighting with the head teacher’ because we have understood our work and we see that it is not the best way to do this’ (Augustus, CCT, transcript, para. 130, Uganda)

These interpersonal workings, linked to professional activities were claimed by Augustus to have had a surprising outcome:

‘we did not expect this kind of unity. We only realised as we were moving through that we were working together. At the onset, we didn’t expect unity and working across...we should be brought together, not work in isolation. At the beginning, we thought you would work with the CPTC [only]. They were not expecting very much’ (Augustus, CCT, transcript, para. 145, Uganda)

The unexpected nature of unity being part of the CCTs working life is partially explained by a glimpse into life before the initiative at the college:

‘it has brought meaning to outreach activities – like if you had not invited us to the meeting on Friday I have never seen CCTs been called together. It is unusual for CCTs to be called to college to meet – they are always called to bring reports’ (Malachi, CCT, transcript, para. 154)

In summary, the successes of the mentoring initiative which CCTs identified directly, and through a consideration of what the initiative had brought them, are tangible and intangible, professional and personal. The study shows that there was unexpected personal growth for CCTs (since they did not expect the changes). They could change the way in which they carried out their professional work and saw the impact of using soft skills. The study also demonstrates that CCTs developed their professional skills, including within information literacy (e.g. their work on video, computer skills and materials development and distribution). The funding which came with the initiative was important to the success of the initiative in two main ways: through enabling the initiative work to happen and enabling the CCT’s day-to-day work to happen.

4.5 Associated issues: persistent discovered themes

I have set out the results of the main areas of the study, expectations, work and success above. They were explored mainly through mapping interview transcript data using Dawson's framework (Dawson, 2014; 2010) as an organising tool. The transcript data had also been coded by question and I had made manual summaries of transcript information. From these processes, I identified other themes which were associated with the three supplementary research questions, but also illuminated broader aspects of the mentoring initiative. They contribute towards answering the main research question: how is mentoring understood in an initiative to improve teacher education in Uganda?

4.5.1 Persistent discovered themes

Three themes kept presenting themselves as the data analysis continued:

- about an underlying view which CCTs held of volunteers, as distinct from a mentor - 'what is expected of volunteers?'
- about how CCTs saw themselves as learning professionals – 'how CCTs saw their own professionalism?'
- about finances – 'Financing – views from mentors' and CCTs'

Theme 1: what CCTs expected of volunteers

In earlier sections, I set out information about CCTs' expectations of mentors. These were many and were informed by CCTs having a professional mentor role. CCTs made a distinction between 'mentor' and 'volunteer' and that the terms set up different

expectations. The mentor cohort was comprised of volunteers²⁵. I found that CCTs' expectations of the mentoring initiative were interlinked with their understanding of what volunteers did when on placement. Uganda's volunteering tradition is generally located in the family and community (e.g. taking in and supporting relatives' children). Being a volunteer in the mode of Western or higher income countries' traditions is, of itself, unusual. The main experience that the CCTs had had of volunteering in this non-familial way was when Peace Corps Volunteers²⁶ (PCV) were placed with the college. Peace Corps has its own rationale and structure which had been received by CCTs as resulting in no change to their professional lives. Consequently, when the VSO/UNICEF placement was introduced to them they expected little or nothing of the volunteer's work: 'I thought it was just an ordinary Peace Corps Volunteer – I didn't know you had come to make a difference – we thought you would be like any other overseas volunteer' (Paul, CCT, transcript, para. 102, Uganda). The distinction was made by Michael who contrasted the PCV activity of attending workshops with CCTs with my observed activity of giving direct support to CCTs (Michael, CCT, transcript, para. 98). I found that CCTs were optimistic about the mentoring initiative even with this prior experience of volunteers. They expected that there would be mentoring and coaching support as the college principal had told them of this (Samuel, CCT, transcript, para. 9; Peter, CCT, transcript, para. 101). James Peter expected the volunteer mentor to be

²⁵ In addition, one colleague was separately funded and contracted by a donor country's international aid programme and two national (Ugandan) mentors were funded from other resources.

²⁶ The Peace Corps Volunteer program is an initiative of the US government which was set up in 1961. It works internationally with an intent to both introduce America to other cultures and for Americans to be introduced to other countries' cultures. There is a three-month in-country induction followed by, typically, two years in the placement. See <http://www.peacecorps.gov/about/> and Callahan & Hess, 2012.

‘another immediate supervisor and so also a supervisor but works together and shares challenges’ (James Peter, CCT, transcript, para. 123, Uganda). Wilbur combined experience and hope in commenting, ‘when we heard that a VSO was coming we hoped to get a difference between a VSO and a Peace Corps [Volunteer]. We expected you to come and make a change in what we are doing’ (Wilbur, CCT, transcript, para. 113, Uganda). Merville expected there to be a reveal where the initiative programme would be set out so that the steps could be followed, as with previous practice:

‘I expected a bottom up approach – that you would come with a package and we would do things. But in fact, you brought us together, college, district, schools – but we did the needs assessment and you helped us to see which gaps and how we would go forward in planning together and executing plans together. I thought the initiative had a programme – it would just say we had meetings and we would do activities in schools. We thought, when we saw you in the staffroom, that you would all unveil’ (Merville, CCT, transcript, para. 99, Uganda)

In summary, the expectation of volunteers was based on CCTs’ first-hand experience. For some CCTs this resulted in them expecting little impact on their professional practice. For others, the hope was that things might change. Neither group expected much change to happen or the kind of change which happened.

Theme 2: how CCTs saw their own professionalism

- I asked CCTs to identify the roles or tasks which they understood as their work and then to assess themselves in their own terms in relation to each of the tasks or items (Appendix 18, questions 2,4 and 5). I found that CCTs tended to assess their work favourably, generally above average, except for community mobilisation, where they assess themselves to be less successful. A key point was the CCTs' acceptance that their work did not necessarily take place but, were it to take place, it would be done well enough or better than that. Where their practice was inhibited the CCTs could identify their reasons for the lack of quality in the task or role. I collated the barriers to the work which CCTs had mentioned during their interviews. These were:
 - lack of support and funding from the college
 - the attitude of others (head teachers and teachers)
 - teacher or head teacher absent from school when activities were to take place
 - disinterest on the part of little-educated parents who saw no great need to support their children into education
 - lack of facilitation (funding) to provide food or transport for CPDs

The factors which CCTs cite as holding them back from being professionally successful are also areas which they see as being someone else's responsibility or someone else's fault. This information shows CCTs retaining individual professional confidence but distancing themselves from the quality of the work with which comprised their roles.

Theme 3: financing – views from mentors and CCTs

Finance was an aspect of the initiative and of working in education in Uganda on which CCTs and mentors held firm views. CCTs had several expectations for the work which were linked with ambitions for its funding. These expectations directly related to the prominence of the donor liaison agency, UNICEF, and the funding experience of other donors. CCTs were expecting or hoping to be funded for running specific training, to be provided with laptops and internet access, to be given materials for all their schools and other items:

‘The issue of CPDs – it was a high expectation. Previously CPDs were monetarised from the ministry then NGOs. The expectation was that UNICEF as an NGO would do the same. So, a difficulty was that people increasingly expect funding’ (Fred, CCT, transcript, para. 179, Uganda)

This level of expectation of resource does not suggest an immediate appreciation of the work of the mentor as change agency, but rather seeing the volunteer mentor as resource supplier or funding conduit. I found that some CCTs thought that the mentoring initiative was concerned with giving and checking resources:

‘You know, the initial information that I had was that the initiative (what it meant) – originally we had a top official, [.....]. He said that everyone should have a flagpole, classrooms. I thought that the initiative was coming to ensure that the Basic Requirements²⁷ are in every school’ (Malachi, CCT, transcript, para. 130, Uganda)

²⁷ (MoES, 2010)

Interview data showed that mentors looked askance at the role that hard cash played as a resource in the mentoring initiative. Danke (mentor) saw the overall programme as being structured precisely so that ‘people everywhere could take money’ (Danke, mentor, transcript, para. 81, Ireland) somewhat wryly stating ‘I am meant to run workshops. I am meant to train teachers and CCTs. I am meant to bring money into the college’ (Danke, mentor, transcript, paras. 34-36). Federika saw some connection between priorities of the work and the separate activity of ‘just channelling the money’ (Federika, mentor, transcript, para. 98, The Philippines). Federika was very content with working with UNICEF or VSO on financial resourcing for the initiative but found it difficult to do this within the college context as she was not clear who is responsible for what. What mentors found difficult was the impact of delayed funds on work plans. In Justine’s words, ‘it went pear shaped in August’ (Justine, mentor, transcript, para. 40, Ireland). Mentors set out their typical week’s plans as with money and without money. This view of the instrumental role of timely or sufficient funding is echoed in CCTs’ views of their work patterns which are considered in a later section. For mentor Lisel the funding situation leads to a binary decision making process:

‘[the] initiative is a very broad concept. I think, yeah, repeat, please. Being a mentor means that you don’t have a specific programme in mind – you have an open mind for working with a budget is necessary – without a budget I cannot

do any activities. I cannot be a mentor' (Lisel, mentor, transcript, para. 7, The Netherlands)

Mentors accept the usefulness of having access to funds but also acknowledge the impact of the supply of funds for the execution of the work. I found that some mentors had an additional view about the place which funding played within the initiative: they saw the availability of funds as drawing people to training events who were not committed to the work of the initiative. For some mentors, school inspectors were the group which concerned them. Brenda saw a cynicism in the inspector group where she feels politely ignored. She believed that her workshops are only attended by inspectors because of the funds on offer for transport and out-of-pocket expenses. Justine had a similar view and posited that her work in schools would be less effective if she funded inspectors to accompany her and 'if they haven't been given money, they don't go' (Justine, mentor, transcript, para. 109, Ireland). Both comments speak to the quality of professional relationships.

The funding for the mentoring initiative allowed CCTs to undertake their professional role (for example, putting fuel in the motorbikes to travel to schools, stationery stock for using in trainings, mobile phone airtime to keep in contact with head teachers). It also supplemented the CCTs' home budgets. In part, due to the intermittent funding received by CCTs from other sources, the fact of receiving monies from the mentoring initiative, in providing a boost to personal finances, contributed to the favourable light in which the initiative was seen. This financial boost had a considerable impact on the CCTs' overall household income. In November 2013, when I interviewed CCT Jeremiah,

he told me that CCTs had received no salaries from January to July 2013 and before this had been receiving less allowance than was needed to keep their motorbikes on the road and to support trainings at their CCs. Jeremiah said, 'at least I am able to buy soap' (Jeremiah, CCT, transcript, para. 57, Uganda). He explained that:

'when he received the transport refund for the initiative meetings that he attends – these vary from 30,000shs to 50,000 UGX a meeting – he spends 10,000UGX on transport and uses the rest to buy sugar, soap and so on. He says that many people find that they really need to money when it comes' (Jeremiah, CCT, transcript note, para. 58, Uganda)

In summary, the mentoring work which is undertaken is in line with the broad requirements of the placement document (Busuulwa, 2010). Mentors brought their professional strengths to the work and this constituted an enabling resource. However, an enabling and limiting resource was financing. This meant that work needed to be tailored to the prevailing funding circumstance. Where there was funding, there was a great deal of scepticism on the part of some mentors about the motive for some participants' attendance at initiative events. I found that CCTs acknowledged high expectations for mentoring initiative funding. The evidence was that the funding for the initiative supported not just the initiative work itself but provided a broader professional and personal support.

4.6 Mapping using Dawson's framework

The earlier sections presented results from analysing mainly CCTs' and mentors' interview responses. These were organised to respond to the supplementary research questions which focused on the mentoring initiative and expectations, work and success. I also identified three themes which were linked to these three areas but which spoke more directly to the main research question about how mentoring is understood within the mentoring initiative. Prior to developing the responses to the specific questions, I had mapped the data which I had collected from interviews and from local initiative data against sixteen elements of Dawson's framework (Dawson, 2010). I wanted to look at the intent of the initiative originators against the expectations and experience of CCTs and mentors. I summarised the outcome of the mapping process (Table 10). I identified three elements where there was the greatest difference between the originator's intent and the comments of the CCTs and mentors. I decided to use these elements (objectives – Element 1, resources and tools – Element 10, rewards – Element 13) as proxies for expectations, work and success (the foci of the research questions). This proved to be a starting point as the distinction between the elements could be blurred when translated from a mentoring framework design tool to a real world descriptive and analytical tool.

4.6.1 Intent and planning to practice and participation: from three constituencies

Using Dawson's framework (Dawson, 2014; 2010) the initiative is positioned within a mentoring context from three viewpoints without defining it.

Summarised results of mentors and CCTs with table 6 results (mentoring initiative documents)			
	Local information (documents)	Mentors: summary of element (no. = 15)	CCTs: summary of elements (no. = 28)
1.Objectives	Improvements in primary school literacy and numeracy, increased access to education, increased primary school attendance and completion. Improve the technical skills of key teacher educators through using a coaching/mentoring model	Improvements in primary pupils' literacy and numeracy. Improvements in the quality of work in schools and of the work of CCTs. Building capacity of CCTs and DPOs.	To improve primary schools in specific ways. To provide resources. To bring about change. Little or no information about the objectives of the mentoring initiative.
2. Roles	National education bodies, local government, CPTC administration and UNICEF (national and regional have assigned responsibilities: for co-ordination, project management, supervision and support)	Work with CCTs and with teaching staff (teachers and administrators) to improve the quality of teaching and learning. Capacity building of CCTs and DPO.	No or few expectations. Working with teacher educators (CCTs) and in schools to improve their work. Promoting sharing of experience and practice.
3. Cardinality	In first two-year phase: six mentors in term 1 rising to twenty-three mentors in term 2. In second two-year phase: eight mentors. Each mentor based at a different CPTC. Mentors to work with a total of 534	Working mainly with CCTs and with school staff. Various levels of contact with DPOs and other college or district education staff.	Working mainly with CCTs and with school staff. Various levels of contact with DPOs and with other college or district education staff.

Summarised results of mentors and CCTs with table 6 results (mentoring initiative documents)			
	Local information (documents)	Mentors: summary of element (no. = 15)	CCTs: summary of elements (no. = 28)
	CCTs, 340 DIS and 100 district education staff with work expected to affect every primary school (15,892)		
4. Tie strength	<p>CCT and mentor was the primary relationship. Between 17 and 42 CCTs in each CPTC. A weak tie if the relationship was intended as 1:1. Additional relationships with DPO, local school inspectors and other education potholders.</p>	<p>Various permutations of working with CCTs and school staff, as individuals and as groups, with consequent variations in tie strength.</p> <p>Generally weaker tie strength in working with DPO, inspectors and other education staff.</p>	<p>Expected that there would be few or no direct links with CCTs work, more likely to work with schools or the CPTC.</p> <p>Found that there was much joint working which included CCTs and district staff.</p>
5. Relative seniority	<p>CCTs, DPO and school inspectors are senior within the Ugandan education system, with higher level education qualifications and lengthy education experience. Mentors were similar in seniority in home countries with specific experience required for the placement.</p>	<p>Mentors recognised their own skills and experience and their seniority in their careers.</p> <p>They expected to be offering or sharing these with those with whom they worked in the placement.</p>	<p>CCTs recognised their own skills and experience and their seniority in their careers.</p> <p>Where they expected the mentor to work with them there was no explicit issue of seniority but there was a focus on guidance and support from the mentor.</p>

Summarised results of mentors and CCTs with table 6 results (mentoring initiative documents)			
	Local information (documents)	Mentors: summary of element (no. = 15)	CCTs: summary of elements (no. = 28)
6. Time	The intended length of each of the two phases was two years. An outline of mentors' activities identified segmentation of the time for a range of activities both in and out of term time.	<p>The mentoring initiative was considered by mentors to be expansive given the time available and the ground to be covered.</p> <p>Mentors mainly drew up weekly activity programmes which could be inhibited by lack of access to funding.</p>	<p>CCTs identified joint work planning at CPTC and district levels.</p> <p>There was a growing appreciation of time management, making priorities and task completion as features of the work with the mentor.</p>
7. Selection	There was no information about how colleges or CCTs were selected. Mentors were selected through VSO's international volunteer recruitment process.	<p>Prospective mentors identified themselves to VSO for a variety of reasons.</p> <p>Mentors were selected through VSO's international volunteer recruitment process.</p> <p>There is no information from mentors about why they were selected for a specific CPTC.</p>	<p>CCTs were told by senior college administrators that a volunteer or a mentor would be coming to the CPTC.</p> <p>They played no part in selecting the volunteer or mentor.</p>
8. Matching	No information about matching college to mentor or mentor to CCTs. There is implied inclusion of all CCTs at participating colleges.	<p>Mentors were to work with the CCTs and other relevant personnel linked with the mentoring initiative.</p> <p>Mentors worked with all CCTs in workshops and trainings.</p> <p>Mentors worked with some CCTs, dependent on agreed activity plans.</p>	<p>All CCTs worked with the mentor in workshops and trainings.</p> <p>All CCTs worked with the mentor on agreed activity plans.</p> <p>Other relevant personnel linked with the mentoring initiative worked with</p>

Summarised results of mentors and CCTs with table 6 results (mentoring initiative documents)			
	Local information (documents)	Mentors: summary of element (no. = 15)	CCTs: summary of elements (no. = 28)
			the mentor and CCTs at times.
9. Activities	Activities for the mentor included monitoring, evaluation, three year, annual and termly planning, joint school and CC visiting and support supervision, workshop provision, support in implementing the revised PTC curriculum, liaising with NGOs and national government.	<p>Mentors' activities included termly and weekly programme planning, joint school and CC visiting and support supervision and workshop provision.</p> <p>Continuity in off-site activities was mainly dependent on funding availability.</p> <p>Some mentors supported CPTC students or pre-service tutors.</p>	<p>Many CCTs identified joint school visiting and exchange visits which included a range of education staff.</p> <p>Many CCTs cited joint planning, materials production and ICT-enabled work.</p>
10. Resources and tools	The mentor was located at a CPTC. There are implicit costs for providing the programme and for travelling (truck and driver). UNICEF staff to support in unspecified ways.	<p>Mentors brought their management, organisational and teaching skills to the placement.</p> <p>Mentors brought interpersonal skills, mentoring skills and a flexible outlook.</p> <p>Mentors had access to funding for their programmes.</p>	<p>CCTs noted the mentoring initiative as bringing organisational and teaching skills to the placement.</p> <p>CCTs developed work plans. The mentor used interpersonal and mentoring skills.</p> <p>Funding allowed for the programme to run.</p>
11. Role of technology	Mentors were required to have ICT skills and be prepared to use them	Mentors' personal ICT skills were used to produce materials for workshops and trainings. Little mention of ICT apart from mobile	CCTs cited the use of video in support supervision and in teaching clinics.

Summarised results of mentors and CCTs with table 6 results (mentoring initiative documents)			
	Local information (documents)	Mentors: summary of element (no. = 15)	CCTs: summary of elements (no. = 28)
		<p>phones (as a nuisance as well as a communication).</p> <p>One mentor used radio broadcasting. Some other mentors wished to use radio and video recording but had not.</p>	<p>CCTs had access to ICT training (video and computers).</p> <p>CCTs developed workbooks and newsletters using their new ICT skills.</p>
12. Training	No explicit training is indicated for mentors or mentees in developing mentoring skills	<p>Mentors identify no explicit training for mentors or mentees in developing mentoring skills.</p> <p>Several mentors note a lack of preparedness: by the CPTCs and about the professional context of the CCTs.</p>	<p>CCTs had mentoring as one of their professional roles.</p> <p>CCTs were confident in their broadly similar accounts of what mentoring comprised, how they undertake it and the quality of their mentoring.</p>
13. Rewards	<p>No specific financial compensation is indicated for any participant.</p> <p>Mentors would receive the standard in-country VSO allowances. CPTCs would get access to a mentor for two years as well as a truck and a driver. Otherwise, rewards are to do with improvement of professional practice.</p>	<p>Mentors' expectations for the placement were largely to do with fulfilling ambitions to volunteer, to see Africa and to give back.</p> <p>Mentors wanted to experience new opportunities and to make a difference.</p> <p>Several mentors were looking forward to personal freedom by way of the placement.</p>	<p>CCTs told of funding which subsidised their professional and personal lives.</p> <p>CCTs had access to professional skills (including ICT training, video, support supervision and mentoring) plus guidance and counselling and the benefits of joint working.</p>
14. Policy	Guidance on the conduct of the mentoring	No explicit information on the conduct of the mentoring relationship.	No explicit information on the

Summarised results of mentors and CCTs with table 6 results (mentoring initiative documents)			
	Local information (documents)	Mentors: summary of element (no. = 15)	CCTs: summary of elements (no. = 28)
	relationship is limited to a requirement for mentors to undertake their collaborative work respectfully.		conduct of the relationship.
15. Monitoring	Key national government stakeholders and national education bodies plus DPO, district education officers (DEO) and mentors had a monitoring role. There was to be a progress measure at the end of years 2 and 4. There was an emphasis on teaching and learning strategies and outcomes, monitoring and supervision reports, P3 ²⁸ and P6 ²⁹ literacy and numeracy scores, primary pupils' retention and completion rates.	UNICEF, VSO and the CPTCs (particularly the principal and the DPO) were cited as technically involved in monitoring. Where the monitoring involvement was operational it was not usually considered as entirely satisfactory however well intended. Where the monitoring involvement was absent the reasons attributed for this were several.	CCTs describe a default process by which the joint working across education professionals constitutes the monitoring. CCTs note that the mentoring initiative is filling an operational gap which the CPTC should expect to fulfil CCTs recognise the interest of UNICEF in the work and that the mentor will report to it and to other institutions.
16. Termination	Placements were time-limited. There was no other information about termination of the	One mentor concluded the placement earlier than contracted.	CCTs understood that the termination of the mentor in placement would involve the mentor, the CPTC

²⁸ Primary year 3

²⁹ Primary year 6

Summarised results of mentors and CCTs with table 6 results (mentoring initiative documents)			
	Local information (documents)	Mentors: summary of element (no. = 15)	CCTs: summary of elements (no. = 28)
	mentoring relationship.	All other mentors completed or extended their contracted time. Extensions were individually agreed and required support from the CPTC and UNICEF.	(administration) and UNICEF.

Table 10: array: Dawson's framework elements (2014, 2010) (adapted from Table 1, summary of design elements 1 to 4, Dawson, 2014, p. 140)

Mentors' and CCTs' information was broadly in line with information from the initiative documents in cardinality (Element 3), matching (Element 8), policy (Element 14) and termination (Elements 16). In all other elements, there was variation in responses but particularly in relation to: objectives (Element 1), resources and tools (Element 10), rewards (Element 13). There was broad agreement in practice between CCTs and mentors on Element 5 (relative seniority) and Element 8 (matching).

4.7 Commentary: aspects of the landscape of the mentoring initiative

This section opens by taking us back to the intent behind the work as envisaged by its originators. It uses the mapped framework information to compare factors across the main data sets as well as the responses which have arisen from a closer focus on specific elements.

4.7.1 Mapping response

Using the framework was an extension of the use for which it was designed. However, Dawson (2014) has acknowledged that the framework is open to amendment. This section considers the completed mapping (Table 10). The section concludes with observations about the use of the framework for the purpose to which it has been put in this study. There is descriptor for each element (Dawson, 2014).

1. **Objectives:** ‘the aims or intentions of the mentoring model’: CCTs have little information about the objectives of the initiative. They mainly discerned objectives from their experience of the work. This meant that some CCTs could identify themselves as being mentored, particularly in teaching and learning. They recognised a guidance and support function in the work which focussed on teachers, college administration and themselves ‘retraining and equipping us with skills to go and do our jobs’ (Matthew, CCT, transcript, para. 100). This is position summarised by Augustus:

‘the reality is that the initiative has focussed more on the quality of teaching and learning in school. In the beginning, we thought that it would provide materials and classrooms. But now we have come to see that it is more on the quality of teaching and learning, targeting the pupil’ (Augustus, CCT, transcript, para. 110).

Bewford and John Aaron correctly linked the objectives of the initiative with the faltered introduction of a specific national education drive and with baseline work for the initiative:

‘to improve performance in order to have quality education especially on the [...] particularly on indicator 4 – teaching and learning – improving the quality

of education in this part of the country [...] to mentor us on the thirteen indicators' (Bewford, CCT, transcript, paras. 102 and 115, Uganda)

'before UNICEF came in with [the initiative] with a mentor we heard about it but it disappeared completely but you have come to reactive the aspects that are necessary in schools – majorly the teaching and learning. That is the key' (John Aaron, CCT, transcript, para. 121, Uganda).

Mentors had received information about the objectives of the initiative and largely concurred with UNICEF's objectives to work on literacy and numeracy and the capacity of CCTs:

'In practice, [the objectives] have turned out to be working alongside CCTs and addressing class teachers in the areas of English and mathematics' (Danke, mentor, transcript para 39, Ireland)

'encouraging the relationship between CCTs and teachers [...] change the CCTs from being people who go in and lecture the schools and have a little tirade' (Oliva, mentor, transcript, paras 18, 29, England)

Rosalind makes the point firmly and plainly:

'I am clear about this. It's about mentoring the CCTs for sustainability – not mentoring head teachers, not anyone in college – Possibly some teachers supported by lesson observations. It is the CCTs role that is going to make a difference' (Rosalind, mentor, para. 83, England)

Broader objectives which were to lead to better and more regular pupil attendance, access to improved teaching and learning in school and increased primary school completion rates or to building capacity of other education professionals were little

mentioned by mentors. When they were commented upon it was as ambitious or unlikely to be achieved: 'The [...] proposal document expects that children in P1 and P2 that dropout levels should go down. Whoever wrote it was just playing with words' (Sarah, mentor, transcript para. 58, India). There was also confusion about a key aspect of the work, the relationship with the CPTCs where Justine's statement 'I never thought that I would have anything to do with the colleges' (Justine, mentor, transcript, para. 53, Ireland) contrasts with that of Rosalind, 'I thought I would work much more in the college' (Rosalind, mentor, transcript, paras. 34, England).

There is an apparent lack of a common purpose which is understood similarly by all partners about the initiative's objectives. This is an important difference. Fulfilment of the mentoring initiatives' objectives would need restatement, reinforcement, more active brokering or an acceptance of partial completion as they were not thoroughly shared and understood by all parties.

Even with the range of perceptions about what the objectives were, the initiative was put into place. Mentors and CCTs adjusted to the reality of the initiative. Both groups reported misunderstandings about what was intended from the initiative. Given CCTs' prior experience in working with NGO and government education programmes, the perceptions of the CCTs are the ones which needed to be addressed at an early stage. Wilbur, in talking about outcomes of the work also lays out how he rationalised the relationship between his expectations and what was being implemented:

'but from the very beginning you had told us the plan or the layout of the activity so you are working towards [the outcomes]. So, at the end, I expect that you will have achieved everything that UNICEF has asked you to do with us' (Wilbur, CCT, transcript, para. 164)

2. Roles: ‘a statement of who is involved and their functions’: the scale of UNICEF’s ambition is much wider than mentors’ identify. CCTs have little specific information about roles. UNICEF considers that a considerable range of professional, education and civil bodies will have a role in the work. These bodies have national, regional and local remits. The specific roles of these tiers of involvement are lightly drawn except when it relates to the day-to-day leadership of the work: this latter is clearly stated as UNICEF’s responsibility.

There was variation in the roles which mentors identified for others within the initiative: CCTs were implementers of the work and they, along with DPOs and to a lesser extent district school inspectors, teacher and head teachers, were to have their capacity built through the mentor’s work. Other district education staff and college administrators were expected to contribute to monitoring the work. They were also involved in some professional development activities. UNICEF’s key role was to bring funding. VSO was the professional reference, ‘VSO is conscious that our aim is to improve skills by using our skills, modelling, using example(sic)’ (Danke, mentor, transcript, para. 83, Ireland). The education ministry, MoES, was mentioned as working with UNICEF and one mentor experienced the role of the donor country embassy representative when they were interviewed as part of the donor’s monitoring (through in field visits and attendance at review meetings).

The variation in role which mentors saw in others also applied to themselves. This variation was expressed in the breadth of the placement, with Betty calling it ‘the broadest position I have ever held’ (Betty, mentor, transcript, para. 34, Kenya).

Mentors slimmed down the workload in line with local priorities. The reduction in the

range of the work tended to be linked with local conditions. Local conditions were affected by personal relationships and professional practices within each CPTC.

The outcome of the individual's clarification of role varied. Brenda accepted that she had 'little or no influence on [school inspectors'] professional behaviour' (Brenda, mentor, transcript, para. 55, Ireland). Working from a different college Justine found inspectors to be 'inactive, faultfinders [who] don't offer guidance, don't visit schools [...] I don't work with them' (Justine, mentor, para. 109, Ireland).

A positive and constructive outlook on the part of the mentor was echoed in their being able to make progress in the role. Sharleen who saw the role as being like a deputy head teacher 'keeping people happy – giving feedback and developing relationships – also treading carefully, not being a steamroller in making people do this, do that...' (Sharleen, mentor, transcript, para. 29), found herself 'surprised where I have got to' (Sharleen, mentor, transcript, para. 85) as she looks forward to a promising local roll out of the work. The experience of developing the mentor's role, which was initially 'a very expanded job description' left Lisel bemused after her first observation of the DPO on a school visit: 'it was needs analysis, the DPO talked for over half an hour and I went to the children and they were sitting quiet, quiet' (Lisel, mentor, transcript, paras. 33 and 44). She ensured that she set up a weekly meeting with the DPO, focussed on using the skills and knowledge in teacher education that she had brought from the Netherlands and found that 'I believe that I understand more and more what [UNICEF's] intentions were in launching the programme. [It] was very courageous' (Lisel, mentor, transcript, para. 74, The Netherlands).

Mentors' roles were active, they knew that there was something that they were required to achieve and that the range of the work was set out in a wide-ranging job

description. They aimed to set up working relationships with local educationalists and these had varying degrees of success. Local educationalists also took different stances about being involved in the initiative and there was markedly more involvement with CCTs when compared with other groups which the initiative originators identified as having a role.

3. **Cardinality:** ‘the number of each role involved in a mentoring relationship’: there are limitations on which groups are part of the work. Potentially, there are many individuals in the mentoring relationship with the mentor. Coverage of all primary schools and districts by a CPTC-placed mentor is envisaged by UNICEF along with their having active professional relationships with CCTs, DPOs and school inspectors. This range of potential mentoring partners eliminates the possibility of a traditional 1:1 mentoring dyad. It does not eliminate a one to many model but to have such a model with the potential of one mentor to tens or hundreds of mentees is not feasible. This leads to a conclusion that narrowing the reach of the active mentoring relationship was either envisaged by UNICEF or understood to be acceptable when it happened. And it did happen. Mentors, where they identified their relationship as mentoring, cited CCTs, pre-service tutors, ITE students and DPOs as the groups with whom they worked or expected to work: ‘as a mentor I am sent to support the CCTs and the pre-service staff. On my own discretion in relation to the offer to them, I decided on teaching and learning’ (Irem, mentor, transcript, para. 34, Ireland). Of these, the most usual relationship was with CCTs where the number of CCTs ranged from 17 in Fort Portal to 42 in Bushenyi. The mentoring relationship with DPOs was an ambition as opposed to a reality for mentors, a relationship which Lisel characterised as professionally inappropriate: ‘with the DPO you should be the leader or supervisor, [a]

counsellor [...] the DPO didn't want a mentor' (Lisel, mentor, transcript, paras. 57 and 72, The Netherlands).

Mentoring dyads might be envisaged as being ones where professional growth is developed through the interplay of a variable mixture of experience, seniority, support and guidance. The 1:1 correspondence of one DPO to one mentor at one college appears to be a more manageable goal for the initiative than one to many CCT mentoring. For the initiative to have explicitly identified DPOs as mentees who would work with designated mentors (new-to-country, new-to-system foreign volunteer teacher educators) would be to have created considerable diplomatic and professional hurdles.

- 4. Tie strength:** 'the intended closeness of the mentoring relationship': UNICEF saw a key relationship in the placement as being between the CCT and the mentor as well as there being other important relationships (e.g. DPO and district inspectors). This was similar to mentors' observations. Initially, there was minimal expectation that the mentoring work would be directly with CCTs although it would affect CCTs. This was the message in the volunteer teacher educators' draft workplans (Appendix 16)³⁰. Explicit expectations about the centrality of mentoring CCTs and inspectors was made more clear in the changed work plans. The resulting presumption can only be of a relatively weak tie strength due to the number of people who were expected to be in the mentoring relationship (a minimum of 17), where they were located (at CCs in several districts), the means of communicating (mobile 'phone, face-to-face) and the types of work which were expected to be done within the initiative (Appendix 16).

³⁰ The placement document which was current when I was placed had no mention of mentoring in the outline workplan (DES and ITIED, 2010; Busuulwa, 2010)

CCTs did not expect that there would be close ties with a mentor. Their previous experience with volunteers was of someone who attended events or would supervise, where supervision was a monitoring role. There was no expectation of joint working or planning: 'it was that we had not realised the output like you [do] here. Real field work, real hands on and then you have come to share with us – visiting colleagues, going to other centres' (Keiron, CCT, transcript, para. 126).

Tie strengths do not have to be close, but they should be in line with the kind of work which the mentoring programme is envisaging (Dawson, 2014). The tie distance is a strength as well as a necessity: 'I don't even know if it gives us the authority to help make decisions between the district, head teacher, college and CCTs. Can the mentoring role change the aspects of that structure? Have we authority? I think we have an authority. It is up to us to use, to assure authority. I think that there is a danger of becoming too close in working alongside CCTs. A little bit of distance in making the work possible. [We are] not 'one of them' because we are not. I have good working friendly relationships. That slight distance? It's a specialist job' (Olivia, mentor, transcript, para. 89, England) The key result areas for the initiative (Appendix 1) could not be realised in the initiative time frame solely or mainly through 1:1, closely tied mentoring dyads.

5. Relative seniority: 'the comparative experience, expertise, or status of participants':

there is broad consistency about seniority. The kind of education experience (leadership, management, teacher education, advisory, inspection, curriculum development) and the time in the profession linked with specific qualifications indicated the seniority which UNICEF required of mentors. To be selected for the

placement was to have fulfilled these requirements, and mentors accepted their ascribed seniority implicitly.

Mentors saw the expression of seniority as residing in skills gained through experience, not because of a specific previous job title and expected to be sharing these skills within the placement. This is expressed through mentors Sian, Irem and Sharleen ‘a wealth of experience’ (Sian, mentor, transcript, para. 12, England), ‘I thought that my experience would be transferable’ (Irem, mentor, transcript, para. 16, Ireland), ‘possibly building my own empire. I have thought that there would be scope to do that but on a bigger scale’ (Sharleen, mentor, transcript, para. 18, England).

Some mentors acknowledged that the Ugandan education context would guide the way in which their ascribed seniority would operate with Olivia perceiving that CCTs were a ‘good conduit to training in schools’ (Olivia, mentor, transcript, para. 26, England). Some mentors expected more leadership from ‘the people on the ground. I expected them to say that they wanted more skills in X, Y, Z’ (Brenda, mentor, transcript, para. 26, Ireland) and then the mentors would be able to respond to the requests, whatever they might have been, by virtue of their professional flexibility.

The third stance was identified by mentors, Sarah, Danke and Lisel – that their skills were needed. The expression of this need took markedly different forms. Sarah and Danke recognised weaknesses in the skills of the local educators. Sarah couched the neediness in teachers’ and tutors’ inadequacy, people who ‘didn’t know anything basic about what teaching was about – even [to] read a four-digit number’ (Sarah, mentor, transcript, para. 44, India). Danke expected that the college and the district would recognise her worth and ‘use me to help students, to mentor in the field and to model teaching. I did think that I would be more needed to help with the quality of the teachers [...] I didn’t realise how bloody bad the teaching is here’ (Danke, mentor,

transcript, para. 17, Ireland). These are forceful statements but Lisel's is somewhat finessed, as she talks about her 'practical, didactic, methodical approach' to teaching and learning which she thought would be useful in a most gentle and nearly passive way, 'I was thinking [CCTs and teachers] were waiting for my skills and that was not true' (Lisel, mentor, transcript, para. 14, The Netherlands).

CCTs, as a group, were senior within the education service in Uganda. In that context CCTs had had similar education experience to the incoming mentors. Within the CCT group were principal and senior tutors. These were competitive and promoted posts. In recognition of their own role as mentors some CCTs styled the mentor as a senior mentor. There is no such role title within the CPTC nor within the initiative.

The idea of the mentor being senior but in professional skills and experience, not through job title, was held by CCTs. The mentor was 'an experienced person in the field of education and coming to relate [...] experience from other countries to the Uganda situation' (Amos, CCT, transcript, para. 91, Uganda). The mentor was to give support, to bring knowledge and ideas and to guide the CCTs and teachers in school because the mentor empowered us 'to do the work – equipping us with knowledge and skills to help teachers effectively' (Augustus, CCT, transcript, para. 109, Uganda). Both professional groups, the CCTs and the mentors, were confident in their professional skills and experience. CCTs' acceptance of the mentor, aside from sheer courtesy, was coupled with a lack of professional intimidation or jealousy. This came from CCTs' confidence in their own seniority and skills. This might partially explain why CCTs were not expecting to be professionally developed by mentor colleagues; colleagues who were mostly new to the Ugandan education system.

6. Time: ‘the length of a mentoring relationship, regularity of contact, and quantity of contact’: there were differences of view between participant groups and the mentoring initiative originators. UNICEF had an overview of the longer-term, two-phase development of the work. Within this longer-term view, UNICEF had outline workplans (Appendix 16) which covered the mentors’ role in term-time and during college vacations³¹. An explicit feature of the mentoring initiative was that workplan priorities were to be developed locally. This meant that there were variations from the versions which were included in local documents. The outline workplans expected that mentors would work with each CCT in college and in the field and that mentors would work regularly with DPOs and district inspectors. Mentors were aware of at least one version of the proposed workplan³² but their emphasis was on a weekly planning cycle mainly determined by whether finance had been made available when work was due to happen. Where funding was available mentors were in the field, typically for three or four days each week, ‘Tuesday to Friday is work in the field. One week a district far away so [I stay] overnights, the next week [a district] close by’ (Dorcas, mentor, transcript, para. 40, The Netherlands). CCTs planned over the medium term as they worked on the local programme with the mentor and other colleagues. This was leading to CCTs beginning to develop joint planning and working practices which included an improved appreciation of time management and personal punctuality. What was not set out in local documents or by CCTs or mentors was an explicit time for mentoring, as an activity. The implication was that as an activity happened so mentoring would take place viz, ‘travelling with CCTs to schools,

³¹ In my own college, the work as suggested, would have taken: 180 days per year (CCTs) and six days per year (inspectors) in term time. Fifteen days per year were to be used in work with CPTC tutors plus thirty days administration (in term time) with 35 days plus allocated to out of term time work.

³² In addition, through their colleges each mentor had to submit termly costed plans.

coaching/mentoring them as they support teachers [...] travelling with inspectors to schools coaching/mentoring them as they monitor teachers' efforts...' (Appendix 16).

Therefore, the time for mentoring to occur is very loosely indicated. This allows the mentoring relationship between the mentor and the CCT to develop informally.

- 7. Selection:** 'how mentors and mentees are chosen': there were different ways of selection to the mentoring initiative for different constituencies. There was no information from any information source or participant group about selection of CPTCs (at which CCTs were based), nor was there local documentation about the selection or participation of CCTs.³³ In practice, CCTs report that they were told of the initiative by either the college principal or by the DPO. Neither as individuals nor as a professional group, were the CCTs required or requested to put themselves forward for selection to be part of the initiative. They were informed about being part of the initiative as opposed to being involved in being recruited.

UNICEF and mentors were aware of the mentor selection process. UNICEF, in conjunction with VSO, devised the process and mentors had been party to it. CCTs typically did not consider that there had been a selection process for mentors but considered that mentors were either volunteers 'like a Peace Corps' (John Aaron, CCT, transcript, para. 104, Uganda) who would give support, like a VSO volunteer who would guide or mentor or like 'a UNICEF official' (Ben, CCT, transcript, para. 87, Uganda) who would come to support the Ugandan education system.

³³ As with all areas where there is an absence of information, it cannot be implied that such information does not or did not exist. Rather, this researcher and the research participants did not have access to it and it was not part of their knowledge.

In practice, mentors were VSO volunteers whose curricula vitae were matched to the requirements of the placement person specification. Both UNICEF and the volunteer had to agree to the placement and the college had to agree to accept the volunteer. While CCTs were not able to make individual choices about being part of the work, some mentors might have taken a different view of the placement had they known that they were to be mentors as opposed to being teacher educators (or international teacher educators). Such mentors were in the minority.

There were differences of view between mentors about what was understood by 'mentor' and 'mentoring'. The mentors from The Philippines and from The Netherlands had the clearest concepts of what a mentor was and how a mentor differed from a teacher educator. Sharleen, a mentor from England 'might have billed [myself] on my CV differently' (Sharleen, mentor, transcript, para. 67, England) but the view from Karis, from The Philippines, was that 'if you call teacher educator or mentor, don't care much about the difference here. Education mentor in the Philippines is like the key but teacher educator in the Philippines is respected but not as high a status as mentor – with power' (Karis, mentor, transcript, para. 82, The Philippines). This view is reminiscent of Sundli (2007). Manuella wanted to have gone into the task in more depth before taking it on saying,

'if there had been time to talk about this more then it would have been much better if we could have discussed it further. I could have discussed and analysed but now I had to start and I had a quick start [...] a chicken without a head. I should have insisted to support each other more. I should have told them that this isn't the way to do it. It was also my own responsibility' (Manuella, mentor, transcript, para. 72, The Netherlands).

For Sharleen, knowledge of the role title would lead to different emphases in describing experience in her CV, giving a different priority to aspects of professional experience, but Karis and Manuella would have prepared to do the job differently.

There was an imbalance of power and agency in the selection of mentors and mentees. Had CCTs been able to opt in to a selection process it might have ensured that they were more aware of expectations of the initiative and could be more immediately active professionals within it.

8. **Matching:** ‘how mentoring relationships are composed’: there was no information about matching from UNICEF but it was implicit that all CCTs would be involved in the initiative. In this respect the matching was accidental. The form of the mentoring relationship was not described nor recommended but the accidental nature of the mentor and their match with CCTs at each individual college suggests that one-to-many was a reasonable expectation. Mentors and CCTs operated in line with this expectation. Mentors aimed to include all CCTs in their activities in a range of ways. For example, workshops would typically involve all CCTs but the termly programme planning by each mentor in each college would have different levels of contact with specific CCTs. The lack of any detail about the matching process from any of the constituencies suggests that this was not seen as a key feature which might have had important or detrimental consequences to the initiative. This begs the question about the attention which can or should be given to matching the parties in a one-to-many mentoring relationship and the impact from that decision.

9. **Activities:** ‘actions that mentors and mentees can perform during their relationship’: UNICEF gives a comprehensive account of the range of activities expected to be

undertaken by mentors and sets them within an outline workplan within the initiative placement information (Appendix 16). This was available to mentors prior to their taking up their posts. Key results were specified for the programme overall (Appendix 1). Mentors reported planning or organising a slimmed down version of mentoring initiative activities which mainly excluded mention of yearly or three yearly planning, being involved with CPTC curriculum, or with other NGOs and government bodies.

Some mentors worked with ITE students and with pre-service tutors.

The structure in which the activities were organised was linked to a series of boundaries viz. termly programme planning, review, reporting and financial accounting, college terms and college breaks, availability of funding for agreed activities. This led to the with money/without money reality of planned activities. The expectation in term-time weeks was mentors travelling to schools for three of four days and doing office-based administration on the fifth day.

The range of activities included workshops, in-school support, materials development, lesson observation and assessment. Mentors began these activities after they had completed a needs assessment. The needs assessment involved considerable school visiting, for example, mentor Brenda visited over 100 schools with CCTs before planning her programme.

The experience of mentors was that their activity planning was likely to be unrealistic if it ignored the customary attendance patterns of CCTs and school staff. As explored elsewhere, the attendance rate of teachers is an area of concern. Some mentors found that this was also the position with CCTs where people travelled to home villages each week, typically leaving for the village on Friday and starting the return journey on Monday, 'Mondays and Fridays tend to be half days really' (Sian, mentor,

transcript, para. 50, England), 'Monday: waiting for the CCTs. I know Mondays they are travelling – so Mondays I am at the PTC [...] It is difficult to plan the work' (Lisel, mentor, transcript, paras. 36 and 37, The Netherlands). Mentors undertook the activities in ways which were modelling practices which they wished to encourage. This included punctuality and attendance at planned events: 'I have had very little influence except subtly - time management, not cancelling things, CCTs modelling [my] behaviour, treatment of drivers...' (Brenda, mentor, transcript, para. 61, Ireland). Mentors had to accept that school visiting, which was a key activity, held a different resonance with unexpected levels of formality 'it is different to what I knew - you are a guest [...] waving to children' (Lisel, mentor, transcript, para. 41, The Netherlands) and 'it's like the queen – you arrive in the truck, you go' (Rosalind, mentor, transcript, para. 15, England).

CCTs were focussed on their day-to-day work. They had no immediate expectations that they would be actively involved in the mentoring initiative nor that they would be mentees. The eventual work of the initiative offered opportunities for CCTs to become involved in many of the activities which UNICEF had identified within the initiative placement document (Appendix 6). CCTs were invited to work alongside a mentor principally in school-based activities but also in college-based development. CCTs gave examples of their involvement in joint planning, leading CPD, discovering new teaching methods, writing and sharing documentation ('information is generated ourselves from the five districts and we get information together in the shortest time possible' Malachi, CCT, transcript, para. 125, Uganda), acquiring and improving ICT skills, re-considering corporal punishment ('make sure the teachers give children what they deserve without pain', John, mentor, transcript, para. 120, Uganda) and improving support supervision. These kinds of activities were leading to better personal

planning, improved time management and improved attitudes from school staff towards CCTs: 'I have also improved in most of my schedules of support supervision. I know what it means now and I know what to look for. I go into a classroom with a human face ready to share the challenges' (Paul, CCT, transcript, para. 163, Uganda). The activities as set out in the local documents were invitational and allowed mentors to plan whatever seemed appropriate after needs assessment. While CCTs were working with mentors during needs assessment there remained work on both sides to understand the context in which the activities were meant to take place. The joint needs assessment process allowed for CCTs to experience the potential scope of the initiative as their involvement had been minimal until then. This suggests that the needs assessment was not only a routine activity for this kind initiative but was essential in sharing professional and cultural behaviours.

10. Resources and tools: 'technological and other artefacts available to assist mentors and mentees': there was much variation across participant groups. UNICEF identified the mentor, truck and a driver as the explicit resources. Information about initiative costs for each college were not made explicit³⁴. As a mentor, truck and driver would be welcome but insufficient resourcing for the initiative to run country-wide, there are other resources which had to be available.

The funding was a very important aspect of the initiative. With schools being very widely spread geographically, maybe two or more hours away by truck from CCTs, even the act of visiting schools or inviting teachers to colleges had a high cost. The

³⁴ Informal discussion with mentors drew out that there was variation in initiative costs and in resources which were within the initiative across colleges - except for specific customary allowances (overnight, safari/per diem). To some degree, this would be in line with the expectation that priorities for the content of the work would be locally decided.

funding served not just to ensure that the work took place but financial management and accounting took up mentors' time. This was unexpected and was not identified in the original workplan. Virtually every mentor explained how part of their working week was either accounting for funds or waiting for the principal to sign funding releases so that the bursar could go to the bank to collect the funds so that the planned programme could go ahead. Funding also represented a good that local professionals linked with CPTCs had been used to using and managing in particular ways. As a resource, the supply, sufficiency and distribution of funding was problematic. A discussion is also at 4.5.1.

Mentors looked to their specific skills and their outlook as part of the resources and tools which were made available in the initiative, alongside access to funding (Table 8). Aside from the requirement that mentors would be expected to use their IT skills (Appendix 6) in the work there was no detail about how IT skills expected be operationalised or how it would be supported through the initiative. CCTs identified funds and the mentor as the main resources and these were confirmed as central by mentors as well. CCTs saw professional skills development as a consequence of their work with the mentor. They saw funding as the means to ensuring that meetings and trainings (CPD) happened in their localities and that resources were bought to support the CPD.

Attitudes to funding and other resourcing presented a challenge for mentors. The prevailing difference in supply and use of resources required parties to learn about each other's expectations and presumptions. Greater clarity about resourcing might helpfully have been available throughout the initiative. A discussion is also at 4.4.2.

11. Role of technology: ‘the relative importance of technology to the relationship: the initiative did not identify how ICT should be used in mentoring relationships or in work undertaken through the initiative. Mentors’ ICT use was voluntary and little used overall outside of personal usage³⁵. A few mentors developed IT-linked activities: radio broadcasting, videoing and digital photography. Sharleen (mentor, England) had wanted to set up a radio station but ran out of time and Manuella wanted to do ‘video interaction guidance’ (Manuella, mentor, transcript, para. 103, The Netherlands) where teachers, CCTs and DIS were videoed and then the work was discussed, with revisiting to record improvements. She regretted that she had operationalised the needs assessment as she had ‘we could just have gone into schools and see what has been done’ (Manuella, mentor, transcript, para. 107, The Netherlands).

CCTs identified IT literacy activities and skills which they had gained because of the initiative (in-class and in-college video making, access to the internet and the web, sending and receiving e-mails and attachments, working with word processor, presentation and database applications, digital photography, production of newsletters and workbooks), but this is an unrepresentative response as the CCTs’ college was one of the few which put into place active hands-on ICT activities. It demonstrates the customised nature of the initiative’s programme development. Mobile ‘phone technology was used as a basic and essential communication tool between CCTs and mentors. Phones were usually without smartphone facilities and were mainly used to send brief text messages and for brief conversations. Mentors submitted their regular reports to the centre using laptops and basic administrative communications took place electronically between UNICEF, VSO and mentors in line

³⁵ Personal usage includes using electronic work product communication with UNICEF and submission of relevant reports.

with the caveats set out earlier. The ICT skills which were a recruiting requirement for mentors were little used by mentors, with schools and CCTs, in the field or at college³⁶. For mentors' IT skills to be more comprehensively exploited all CPTCs at which mentors were based would need to have had working and functioning ICT facilities. There would also need to have been provision for such communications at CCTs' co-ordinating centre schools (at their resource bases). This is an area for development as ICT represents a sought-after skills area which would if properly addressed, allow CCTs to keep up to date with education developments locally, regionally, nationally and globally.

12. Training: 'how necessary understandings and skills for mentoring will be developed in participants': Neither UNICEF nor mentors mention training for mentors. Training which mentors received prior to arriving in Uganda and induction training in the first few days in Uganda was training not about mentoring but more globally about volunteering, settling into role, administrative procedures (such as report-writing and submission). Aside from report writing, which drew together information about each college's progress, mentors were invited to attend termly review meetings in Kampala. These meetings were planned to give time for mentors to share issues with UNICEF (day 1). They would be joined by representatives from the donor country, MoES, DES and VSO on day 2. This was where good practice was shared and where issues were aired. This was the key forum for mentors and the other participants to learn from each other and to be aware of what was happening in all initiative CPTCs.

³⁶ The use of a projector in CPTC-based CPD was welcomed by one CCT because now he could see what was being presented from the back of the room. Typically, where there was reading to be done, it was read line by line by the presenter from flip chart sheets stuck around the training room for economy, necessity and because many people had uncorrected poor eyesight.

CCTs had had training for their own roles as mentors and were confident in their understanding of the role (BEPS, n.d.). Within the initiative, the CCTs were implicitly intended to be mentees. No specific training was identified for the mentee role within the initiative but mentors provided modelled practice to CCTs and other education staff which might contribute to mentoring or mentoring relationship training were this to have been formalised (encouraging professional relationships, developing team leadership in senior leaders, developing imaginations, encouraging and spotting progress, 'professionalise teacher educators' Manuella, mentor, transcript, para. 29, The Netherlands).

It may be that there was an implicit understanding that the mentors would come equipped to undertake the mentor role. If this were the case, it would suggest that the mentor role was transferable and could readily operate in an intercultural setting. Explicit development of effective mentoring practice within the initiative, supported by training, would allow for CCTs own mentoring skills to be revisited and for a model of mentoring to be demonstrated and honed which operated effectively in an intercultural context.

- 13. Rewards:** 'what participants will receive to compensate for their efforts': no financial benefit was directly identified by UNICEF and VSO in local documents nor by mentors during interviews. In fact, mentors received a support package via VSO (accommodation and monthly allowance) which would allow them to live modestly and was in line with that of other VSO volunteers in Uganda. Mentors identified personal rewards which were largely to do with fulfilling ambitions, giving back through volunteering or curiosity and adventure. These rewards were largely intrinsic.

There was information which set out the payments which were available to CCTs for transport and for overnight subsistence. CCTs explained how this funding affected their personal and professional lives. Local documentation indicated no other reward for CCTs except that of professional development through the initiative. CCTs identified professional skills development as rewards and saw their own skills development as unexpected. This is because although initiative planning documents identified CCTs as a key group for professional improvement, CCTs did not have access to that information and were not actively involved in bringing the initiative to their colleges. They expected to be conduits for or transmitters of the work, not recipients or beneficiaries.

The distinction in perceived and available rewards, between mentors, CCTs and UNICEF/VSO, is a key difference of view and expectation. This discussion is extended at 4.3.3 and 4.4.3.

14. Policy: ‘a set of rules or guidelines on issues such as privacy or the use of technology’:

there was no clear or formal information on policy from mentors and CCTs. There was a general direction to mentors from UNICEF to be respectful in their work. This was an area of similarity as mentoring relationship policy was not a high-profile issue within local documents (Appendix 6) nor was it identified by CCTs or mentors. How the relationship was to happen was left for those involved to discern.

The work of mentoring, however interpreted, is also personal. There were implicit and explicit challenges in putting into place a multi-site, international education improvement initiative into place. The lack of negotiated policy for the work on the group leaves dominance of practice to social norms (Dawson, 2014). In this situation,

social norms were highly complex and overlapped with political and professional norms.

15. Monitoring: ‘what oversight will be performed, what actions will be taken under what circumstances, and by whom’: all three information groups identify some monitoring activity although there are differences in how monitoring was perceived and when it was operationalised. UNICEF cites many people and groups involved in monitoring at many levels: these include the DES, TIETD, UNEB, NCDC as well as DPOs, DEOs, and the mentors themselves. (DES, TIETD, 2010). Mentors identify involvement from others as limited. In practice, mentors were aware of UNICEF, VSO and CPTCs as having monitoring roles but cited little explicit evidence of it other than submitting regular reports. Mentors did not describe themselves as part of the monitoring process although initiative documents identify mentors as monitors. CCTs viewed monitoring as part of the joint working that was developing. They considered that their joint work with other local professionals (including inspectors) had created a check and balance system which became monitoring. Monitoring is linked with accountability, for use of funds, facilities (truck) and time. It also has the capacity to provide information to check whether progress has been made towards the initiative key results areas (Appendix 1). Both electronic and face to face monitoring opportunities were within the programme which UNICEF managed.

It is unlikely that the monitoring information within the programme could identify the effectiveness of mentoring as a teacher educator improvement strategy. The monitoring is more capable of demonstrating that the activities of the initiative were linked with some positive developments and these might be speculatively attributed to mentoring as a strategy. In an innovative programme, which has ambitious and long

term aims it is difficult to demonstrate impact of one specific aspect, mentoring, but means to do this should continue to be sought.

16. Termination: ‘how relationships are ended’: UNICEF or VSO could remove a mentor from the work. Mentors needed to work in line with conduct requirements of both organisations. Mentors could leave the placement entirely or could ask for a transfer to another college. CCTs were not formally asked for their involvement in the initiative and their withdrawal from the work would likely happen in a similarly undocumented and low key way. There was no specific information from any data group on how the work would end except through the experience of mentors leaving the placement early or extending the placement. This could be because the expectation was that relationships within the initiative would be sufficiently positive to continue for the course of the initiative. This would be an optimistic stance to take given the number and range of individuals who were to be involved. In practice, one mentor left the initiative early, others negotiated extensions their placements with UNICEF with the agreement of MoES and their CPTC. CCTs understood that the early ending of a mentor’s placement would involve the college administration, the mentor and UNICEF. It may be that a time-limited initiative does not need to set out how the work is closed down or how individuals can withdraw from it. In a mentoring initiative, where the quality of the mentoring relationship is important, however informally developed, a means of withdrawing from the relationship could be a pragmatic and realistic addition.

Discussion: using Dawson’s framework in this study

The framework allowed for prior planning and in-practice information to be logged.

There were points where I re-interpreted the element to accommodate the data which

was being offered (e.g. using the rewards element to address some aspects of success), noting that 'intangible benefits' are acceptable (Dawson, 2014). Dawson considered that resources and tools included something little as a cup of coffee, as he saw resources and tools as being instrumental to the work happening, and I have interpreted that broadly, including people and things. While Dawson was looking at online communities, he includes offline relationship development as important (Dawson, 2014). Within an initiative which must address remote communities but also the discontinuity of electricity supply and the intermittent access to up to date technology, I questioned whether to address this element (Element 11 – role of technology) but included it because of those factors. I assert that getting information and support to people to assist in securing better standards in education should be part of a mentoring initiative such as the one being studied. I considered that a mentoring initiative should address the conditions under which it should be terminated and that this feature was absent from all three constituent groups. Selection of mentors was an area which not a part of CCTs' experience. CCTs could not be considered to be volunteers in the work (since they did not opt-out) but the voluntary nature of mentoring relationships within a work context is open to debate (Kimball, 2015; Bozeman & Feeney, 2007).

I used Dawson's framework for a different purpose to that for which it had originally been devised. Rather than using it to be able to evaluate or compare mentoring research, I sought to use it to map mentoring intent and activity. This use has been satisfactory and there is continued scope to develop this use further. The focus of

Dawson's research was online and remote mentoring practice. For this research, the element which related to use of technology appeared to be redundant. The communications issues for this work both preclude a strong information technology factor and invite such a development if the mentoring work is to meet its ambitious aims and objectives. The use of the framework identifies a series of assumptions within the mentoring initiative.

Each of the assumptions had the capacity to be tested and addressed through policy and planning prior to the initiative being implemented. With suitable monitoring and reporting schedules in place, any challenges to agreed assumptions for the initiative could be investigated, managed and rectified. Dawson's framework allows for information to be organised from mentoring research which allows for clearer comparisons to be made between mentoring programmes and activities.

CHAPTER 5 Main findings, recommendations and conclusions

This chapter responds to each research question in turn. Then it considers the mentoring initiative as it moved into practice. The main findings are then set out and are followed by a reflective commentary and a conclusion.

5.1 Responding to the research questions

5.1.1 How is mentoring understood in an initiative to improve teacher education in Uganda?

Mentoring is defined in a myriad of ways and allows for many representations. This was explored in the literature review and was a central reason for using a mentoring framework to set out the intent and the practice of the work. The mentoring initiative is defined implicitly, by the kind of work which the mentoring initiative was to encompass. These tasks include:

- working alongside a range of local teacher educators
- providing local teacher educators with support
- offering centrally devised activities
- undertaking joint working
- modelling of effective teaching practice

Taken together, the tasks were to lead to improvements in class teachers' teaching and pupils' learning resulting in quality education. UNICEF rejected workshops as a main mode of securing improvements but included them in the range of activities which were to be offered within the mentor remit. UNICEF, working with VSO, made

clear the professional skills, experience and qualifications which were required for volunteers. These did not include explicit experience of mentoring. The expression of the professional requirements for the volunteers was such that it brought forward people who were sufficiently flexible to take forward the work which they found on arrival at their placements. Mentors' expectations support this emphasis on the professional attributes as the mentors' own expectations of the placement were largely personal, to do with the experience of the placement, of being in Africa. The research found that mentors identified four main mentoring skills groups: leadership, team working, professional expertise and soft skills. Mentors were flexible in their application of these skills. As a group, mentors were not unduly concerned at being given one title or another although they discerned differences between the title under which they were recruited (usually teacher educator) and the role of mentor.

Mentors either adapted to what they found in placement or came with an understanding of what role or work they wished to take forward, and tried to take that through. The research found that mentors' ability to adapt and to be flexible was set against a backdrop where some mentors found the work setting, the CPTC, had not been prepared for the work that they thought that they were coming to do. There was an expectation by mentors, which had not been met as envisaged, that people on the ground had been thoroughly briefed and were ready for the work to start with the mentor. It became clear that the differences in expectations of CCTs and mentors were rooted in their own professional behaviour and experiences. I consider that CCTs and mentors were not always seeing the same view from the same window at the same time but they might not have realised this at the time.

5.1.2 What are the expectations of mentors and CCTs in a primary teacher educators' mentoring initiative in Uganda?

Mentors came into the placement predominantly expecting to use soft skills (inter and intra personal) in their work which is well in accord with mentoring activity. Mentors had expected to work with CCTs. Their expectations for working with other educators were various as were the sites in which the work would take place. This meant that the work of mentors was unified through all of the mentor cohort working directly with CCTs, to some degree. Mentors' work with CCTs' line managers, the DPOs, was less assured and successful. One area which presented was that mentors, who had been recruited on the same basis with the same placement document, had very different expectations about who, aside from CCTs, they were to work with and where that work might be sited. This would not necessarily present a threat to the quality of the work in a specific CPTC but it does suggest the possibility of variance in practice. The degree of local determination of the initiative might need a specific agreement to reduce the potential for misunderstandings and to secure greater consistency in multi-site initiatives, especially if there was an intent to measure initiative impact over time.

CCTs' expectations of the mentoring programme differed from those of mentors and from those of initiative originators, UNICEF. CCTs had few, no or mistaken expectations of what the mentoring initiative programme or the mentoring initiative work should be, as this represented distinctly from what a volunteer might do. CCTs developed a gradual realisation of how the mentoring initiative work was happening

and the concomitant transference, adoption or growth of professional responsibility. Where CCTs had prior expectations of the work these expectations were primarily to do with funding and resources. Based on previous experience with external programmes including those offered by UNICEF, CCTs were expecting direct financial support for fuel or laptops or, on another level, resources for all primary schools or additional classrooms to be built. The expectations for resources (and the realisation of them) developed as the initiative continued. The expectations encompassed skills development, meetings, trainings and additional activities. CCTs' expectations were not located in improvements to the quality of the work in schools nor, initially and more significantly, did they see that the mentoring programme would affect their own work or skills directly. CCTs began with no expectations that their work might change or that teaching and learning (their own or in schools) might be affected. This was the opposite intention of the mentoring initiative. There were two main reasons for these differences of expectations: firstly, CCTs' usual role in externally funded programmes tended to be as conduits (for cascaded training) or as programme monitors. Secondly, CCTs' previous experience of volunteers assigned to the college was that the volunteers did not work with them and were not involved in change activities. CCTs saw the work of a volunteer as likely to be limited, to be learner (not CCT) focused and to be largely focused on the volunteers' priorities which would not be known by the CCT.

As CCTs in Uganda had a mentor role in their own work they had expectations about the mentor work in general. CCTs expressed no viewpoints about whether mentoring was a 1:1 activity or that a mentor's reach is limited in terms of numbers mentored.

Equally, no group was explicitly identified as being outside of mentoring. CCTs understood mentors to work with people, to consult, to encourage as well as being involved in training and supervision activities. A mentor was expected to work in schools, particularly with teachers, and to provide challenge.

Overall, the research showed that, at the outset, CCTs' expectations of the mentoring programme were that the programme would have little or no specific impact on their own work (particularly as a volunteer was to represent the work in college), but that it might bring resources to which they might have access.

5.1.3 What is the work of mentors and CCTs in a primary teacher educators' mentoring initiative in Uganda?

The work of CCTs and mentors in the initiative is alluded to in the section above. There are similarities in the summaries of their activities set out in the mapped framework (Table 10). The evidence was that much work which mentors did required them to be in schools three or four days a week, generally working with CCTs. They would be observing lessons, modelling teaching, identifying strengths and areas for improvement. As mentors could interpret their work plans to fit locally discerned needs, practice could differ from mentor to mentor. Mentors also prepared and organised workshops and originated documents which were used in training. They brought considerable professional skills to the work, planning and liaising with CCTs regularly and were a major resource in initiative implementation.

There is a connecting thread between the work of CCTs and mentors in the initiative which also defines one of the limitations to getting the work done. That connecting thread is access to finances (although CCTs also identify sufficiency of finances as a limiting factor). The impact of unpredictable funding streams affected not only the workplans of CCTs and mentors but also the attitude to work. For CCTs, the discontinuity led to a professional lassitude; for mentors, the discontinuity led to a fallow week (or so) followed by frantic activity, trying to catch up. I consider that this created a short-termism which ran counter to the intent of increasing capacity in CCTs through support from technical specialists, the mentors. If not managed properly this models short-termism in schools as well. Some mentors identified in CCTs with whom they worked a lack of drive for CCTs' own work. It is possible that the lived experience of the CCTs, who were used to arrangements changing due to lack of finance, resulted in CCTs becoming reluctant to act until they were certain that there was something in which it was worth investing.

The pattern of the CCTs' working week and that of mentors was either with funding or without funding. CCTs described a working week which included visiting schools, supporting staff, attending meetings, undertaking community mobilisation, offering teachers' guidance and counselling. They were positive in the evaluations of their own work but also accepted that they were not so often able to get on with the work as planned. The picture is drawn of CCTs who are familiar with the local context and but are not able to exercise the fullness of their professional roles consistently who are working with mentors who are unfamiliar with the local context and are evidently secure in their professional roles. The concern in this scenario is not to do with what

the work is but how to secure the mentoring relationship is. The mentor: protégé dyad is not an obvious one to apply in these circumstances. The quality of the working relationships between CCTs and mentors varied and where it was good mentors believed that the work which they had done together would continue and CCTs acknowledged being extended in the way in which they addressed their work.

5.1.4 What do mentors and CCTs understand by success in mentoring?

Success in mentoring was addressed in the study mainly as rewards (Element 13), what mentors and CCTs got out of being involved in the mentoring initiative. This means that the gains and the success are found in the individual responses to this research. Other quantitative measures, like pupil achievement outcomes, to which UNICEF would have access, are not part of this study's consideration of success. The study showed that mentors and CCTs went into the initiative with different expectations and that their expectations of success in the work also differed. The personal experience expectations for mentors led to all mentors (except one) remaining in post for the full duration of their placements. These expectations were largely located in individual and experiential growth: seeing Africa, giving back, a mid- or late-career ambition, a response to boredom. For a programme which brought together nationals from several different countries, and with various educational career experiences to work in what was found to be a relatively opaque setting, this is a success. The initiative provided the freedom and flexibility which several mentors were seeking.

Mentors managed and moderated their expectations of success and claimed little in overt successes. This contrasted with the range of activities and events which they cited within interviews and within initiative review meetings. This represents a puzzle as this would suggest that the mentoring route is as effective as the workshop route in improving teacher educators' practice.

However, CCTs did identify benefits (rewards) from the work in professional and personal terms and all looked very favourably on the initiative and judged that it had either improved (or had the potential to improve) their own professional practice. The range of areas in which CCTs cited professional gains were well in line with the type of activities and the intent of UNICEF, as was expressed in their initiative proposal and placement documents (Busuulwa, 2010; DES and ITIED, 2010). CCTs gained skills which included support supervision, new methodologies for teaching and learning, computer skills, work planning and overall school improvement. Attitudinal changes were also noted by CCTs. They learned ways of supporting teachers in school without negativity and found that they were getting favourable responses from school staff. The access to funds, to transport and to other resources meant that CCTs reported being able to do their jobs properly, getting out into the field, visiting schools and seeing improvement. CCTs, who were experienced educators, stated that they learned from working together (e.g. with district education colleagues). Taken together the mentoring initiative was addressing some considerable personal skills' gaps.

The study found that the mentoring initiative had encouraged CCTs to meet deadlines, to improve their timekeeping and to be more transparent in the use of facilitation funding. In these respects, the CCTs were identifying personal growth and experience as an outcome for the initiative in a similar way to mentors. Since the professional exchange between CCTs and mentors was transacted as part of a mentoring initiative, aspects of mentoring relationship behaviour were evident. These included learning from and learning with, creation and sustaining of positive climates and commitment to purpose. What is not so apparent is the structure of the mentoring relationship from which these successes and strengths have emanated. Dawson (2014) accepts that the dyad in the mentoring can be represented in a range of ways including one-to-many and many-to-one. This mentoring initiative had mentors, created success but did not explicitly identify mentees or protégés. The initiative may have been an unwitting representation of Bozeman & Feeney's (2007) distinction between the mechanism for a mentoring relationship and the growth of such a relationship which lay behind their assertion that mentoring relationships were informal and voluntary.

5.2 Theory to practice

The outcomes of the study are intended to improve the form and content of future similar mentoring programmes and to contribute to an enhanced understanding of the roles of the participants in this style of mentoring relationship. As a case study, the study is also intended to provide a descriptive account of an innovative initiative within the primary teacher education sector in contemporary Uganda.

The research was established with two main ideas: firstly, that there was a real historical and present challenge to quality primary education in Uganda. Secondly, that the operation, the practice of mentoring rather than the definition of mentoring, would allow for the mentoring initiative to be considered as a case study. The bridge between these two ideas was that external specialist educators would have the potential to address some of the challenges of low pupil achievement, limited teaching quality in primary schools (Marphatia, et al., 2010; Najjumba & Marshall, 2013) and refreshment of teacher educators' professional skills. The quality of the work of primary teacher educators was criticised (Kagoda & Ezati, 2013; GOU and EDP, 2010) as the tutors themselves were not judged to be skilled or well enough qualified. The curriculum for teacher educators was not fit for purpose (O'Sullivan, 2010). The impact of large class sizes post-UPE introduction had resulted in real challenges to teachers but the assistance that was being given was not being properly applied nor were class sizes per se the root of the poor outcomes for primary age pupils (O'Sullivan, 2006; Nakabugo, 2008). The contention that a different mode of capacity building (DES and ITIED, 2010) was needed is borne out by the experience of both mentors and CCTs. The mentors in placement addressed planning for teaching, lesson observation, assessment, teacher feedback and other pedagogical, managerial and leadership concerns. They also used workshops which had previously been identified as unsuitable for securing longstanding change and improvement as they typically were standalone events with inadequate school-based follow up. Workshops were part of the agreed work programme for mentors. This represented a contradiction between the rationale for using mentoring as a lead improvement mode and using workshops. Workshops were the equivalent of repeatedly putting into practice a faith-

based theory of school and teacher educator improvement: expecting to do the same things but expecting a different result on this occasion (Mutazindwa, et al., 2013).

Given the experience of mentors in the field, the embedded nature of teaching development practice (and the link to personal finances of attendees) workshops were a readily understood form of offering CPD. The novelty (and the necessity) was in mentors visiting and re-visiting schools, encouraging staff and CCTs, being non-judgemental. There were some gains: in better relationships between CCTs and school staff and there was some learning by some teachers and some children. This modelling of supportive practice vindicates the move towards a mentoring style of intervention. Where the innovative mode of working (mentoring) was part of positive CPD the feature which was not posited in the research, either in relation to mentoring or to quality education for teacher educators in Uganda, was the residential placement of mentors in colleges (mostly for two years). This was the aspect of the work that enriched of the discredited features of isolated, single workshops. The residential placement allowed for college and school staff to have continuous access to an experience education professional. It allowed for workshop content to be followed up in schools. It gave time for the education professional to learn deeply how the primary education sector worked in Uganda.

The research shows that the work of mentoring and the circumstance of the mentoring relationship varies. The variance may be a personal construct or interpretation or it may be institutional. The activities in a mentoring relationship also vary. The research found that, in circumstances where there are imbalances of resources, the priority activities which are intended for the mentoring relationship may be subsumed or

minimised. Some of the actions which bound or describe the mentoring relationship are tangible and some are not. Whether the bounding actions are tangible or intangible, they can affect the quality of the mentoring relationship and its outcomes. Research evidence showed that mentoring cannot be presumed to be transferable without interpretation from one professional educational culture to another. Features in the prior experience of actors in the mentoring relationship may have an impact on the terms in which the mentoring relationship is envisaged. In this research, I found that mentoring, as supported by UNICEF, had an expectation of change agency. It may be desirable for a mentoring relationship to be clearly understood by involved parties, to be supported by those who are senior to those in the mentoring relationship, and to be operational in an equal partnership between two actors. The evidence of this research is that these are not essential pre-requisites for a successful mentoring relationship to occur.

5.3 Main findings

Mentoring and the mentoring relationship were variously understood by the initiative originators, by mentors and by CCTs. Fletcher set out a definition of mentoring which located it within cultural norms and the extent to which the mentoring process preserved and transmitted these (Fletcher, 2012). The mentoring initiative was unusual in that it took place in one country, Uganda, it recruited its mentors internationally and it identified their mentees as a cohort defined by their jobs within a type of college, a CPTC. This set up the possibility for different understandings of what the mentoring initiative work would be in practice. The

phenomenon of different understandings of mentoring is not novel and resonates with different social views of those involved in the work (Baingana, et al., 2010), the absence of formal training for specific mentoring role (Fletcher, 2012) and the prevailing lack of a common definition of mentoring (Harrison, et al., 2006) as opposed a description. This finding is reminiscent of the discussion about terms which are taken as synonyms for mentoring (Lunenberg, et al., 2014; Sundli, 2007).

The differences or opacities in defining mentoring and the mentoring relationship were not significant in the perceptions of success by participants in the mentoring initiative. This might also be linked with the lack of definition and the range of synonymous activities (Lunenberg, et al., 2014; Sundli, 2007) and to the realities of the local situation of the work. If the practice within the mentoring relationships demonstrated co-learning (Fletcher, 2012) then the lack of clarity in defining mentoring or the mentoring relationship would not inevitably impede the development of the relationship. Mentoring is intended to contribute to change and development. It comprises a range of activities and aspects which include personal engagement. In coming to the initiative, the mentors and the mentees brought professional confidence and experience, which could have led towards co-mentoring. Instead the tailoring of the mentoring work to situation meant that benefits could be discerned by mentor and CCT cohorts. Both cohorts demonstrated change in their outlooks during the mentoring initiative: mentors' success claims were moderate and CCTs identified success in greater measure than they had expected. This supports the

view that sees mentoring as to do with change agency and personal growth which lead to or are associated with transformation (Lord, et al., 2008).

The mentors' confidence in their own capabilities allowed the initiative to develop in a range of ways which fit local needs. A key feature of the mentoring initiative was the intent of the originators that the work was undertaken after local needs analyses (DES and ITIED, 2010; DES, TIETD, 2010). This resulted in customised operation of the work even if the structure and content of the work (e.g. joint school visiting, training, reviewing classroom practice and supporting CCT professional development) showed similarity across locations. An issue is the personal claiming of the future of the mentoring initiative by the mentors. By this I mean that, in the presence of opacity about the work, the mentors constructed the role. They took a personal responsibility for making the initiative work even while reporting obstacles to continuity of the planned activities and continued to stimulate learning (Lunenberg, et al., 2014) within the mentoring relationships. As the mentors' and CCTs' expectations for the mentoring initiative differed there had to be a modifying or enabling process which allowed the work to get underway. This process, consciously or unconsciously operationalised, required mentors to take a role in the mentoring partnership which is reminiscent of a one-to-one dyadic mentoring relationship.

Setting the skills, experience and qualifications of mentors at a suitably advanced level was key to the initiative being able to proceed. One of the features of formal mentoring programmes is the identification of suitable mentors. The requirements of

the mentoring initiative, as set out in the local documents, were specific and well-targeted to secure the skills, experience and knowledge which were required of a teacher educator. They also implicitly allowed for practitioners who could be responsive to the situations which they found in the placements.

CCTs' expectations of the initiative were influenced by the track record of UNICEF in Uganda and by CCTs' previous experience of foreign volunteers. The experience of CCTs was that they were familiar with NGO involvement in their work. This experience meant that CCTs had expectations of tangible outcomes from the mentoring initiative (largely resources or finance) but not of change in their own practice or active engagement. CCTs' prior experience of working with UNICEF enhanced their expectations of tangible outcomes to include benefits such as training packages, new classrooms, school resourcing and computers. Set against this were the minimal expectations which CCTs had of foreign volunteers being engaged with CCTs' work. Taken together, the expectation was of a well-resourced initiative which would be represented by someone (a mentor) who would not have an impact on existing working practices. This construct matters as it had the potential to create cognitive dissonance for both partners in the expected mentoring relationship. At its most basic level, CCTs could be wondering why resources were not forthcoming and why the mentor was requesting to work alongside them. The mentor could be wondering why CCTs were reluctant to engage with the work of the initiative. For both mentors and CCTs the expectations were also a function of who each thought the other was in the relationship.

The passage through these expectations is one which would need to be navigated by VSO (as the recruiting organisation) but more particularly by UNICEF (for mentors) and the CPTC administrations (for CCTs). The issue here is the time that is lost in coming to understandings.

The prevailing funding challenges mean that there is a mismatch between the work that CCTs and mentors are expected to do and the work which they are able to do.

The funding challenges for CCTs and mentors were similar in one main respect: intermittent funding with unexpected delays. The funding challenges also differed as CCTs' funding delays included receipt of their salaries and monies to facilitate their professional work. The outcome was the same: the development of two distinct work plans, one which would be enacted if funds were available and one if there were no funds. The impact of funding delays is predictable: discontinuous initiative activity and development. CCTs' longer experience of funding challenges had modified their expectations of what was possible and this had compromised their professional currency in some respects. This was able to be addressed through work within the mentoring initiative.

The novel placement of mentors within a pre-existing CPTC college structure and hierarchy contributed to misunderstandings about the work mode. As part of TDMS the PTC structure was altered to accommodate the creation of an outreach arm with a

DPO and CCTs (MoES, 2000). There was no formal place in the structure for a mentor (Figure 1). This might be an expression of an extreme version of informality in mentoring relationships (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007). The local documents for the initiative set out a range of personnel who were associated with the work. Within CPTCs, key relationships for mentors were to be with the college administrators, particularly the DPO. Mentors were also expected to be part of monitoring the initiative and provide regular reports to UNICEF. This, and mentors' role in drawing finance to the colleges (through the activities which were planned and agreed), placed them ambiguously in colleges. They were not substantially senior college administrators and they were not line-managing anyone. Mentors were based in colleges (CCTs were based off-site, at CCs) and mentors had access to resources. The mentors sat outside of the formal seniority within their colleges and had to work with ascribed seniority. Mentors' seniority would be operationalised as a result of what they did and how they presented themselves to the people with whom they worked. This issue recalls that mentors were recruited internationally and that they did not receive specific training on mentoring in the context in which they were to work (Dawson, 2014; Fletcher, 2012).

The novel placement of mentors within the CPTC was the most innovative aspect of the mentoring initiative as it allowed for good quality and broadly continuous needs-driven education intervention. This finding links the experience of professional development in the primary education sector in Uganda, the expectations of volunteer professional educators and the construction of mentoring relationships. It contrasts

with CCTs' expectations of foreign volunteer practice in placement. Mentors aimed to continue to work in some way, even in the absence of funds. There are parallels in the placing of the mentors in colleges with the original TDMS vision to create the CCT cohort – which would live locally, develop a long term relationship with their schools and be provided with transport and the means to use it (Hartwell, et al., 2003; MoES, 2000). Mentors could get to remote locations and to revisit where necessary. The time in placement allowed for them to build up knowledge about schools and to support CCTs in their work. The residential placement of mentors allowed for familiarity to develop between mentors and CCTs which is a reasonable feature in a mentoring relationship. The CCTs' role was a success in delivering key aspects of education policy (MoES, 2013; O'Sullivan, 2006; Hartwell, et al., 2003) and the mentoring initiative replicated features which had contributed to the positive outcomes.

Dawson's framework is a constructive tool to use in mentoring research as it allows for comparisons to be made between programmes and, suitably adapted, it allows for comparisons to be made between different participant groups within a mentoring initiative. The use of Dawson's framework was instructive. The current sixteen elements (Dawson, 2014) provided a robust scaffold for comparison between two types of main data: document and semi-structured interview transcripts. In so doing, the framework allowed for initiative intent and initiative practice to be set alongside each other and for conclusions to be drawn about similarities and differences between intent and practice. This use of the framework suggests that it

could have a place as a monitoring or evaluative tool, whether formative or summative. In its first presentation (Dawson, 2010) there was an evaluation element in the framework as Dawson considered that evaluation had the capacity to improve individual mentoring relationships as well as improving the specific mentoring model which was used. No specific evaluation method was recommended. Dawson found that the responses of mentoring programme participants per se were insufficient to evaluate the mentoring programmes within his research. This is because of different levels of response to invitations to discuss the programmes. Dawson suggests that this might be due to participants undertaking a cost-benefit analysis on the best use of their time and proposed using an online form to improve the model (Dawson, 2010). This research was able to include most mentors in the initiative and of the CCTs based at one CPTC. In addition, the research included examination of local documents and access to participant observation information over several months.

This study suggests that the framework could provide parameters for evaluative data collection and reporting in a mentoring programme as well as being used for its original purpose, which is design and specification of mentoring models. In its first presentation (Dawson, 2010) there was an evaluation element in the framework as Dawson considered that evaluation had the capacity to improve individual mentoring relationships as well as improving the specific mentoring model which was used. No specific evaluation method was recommended. Dawson found that the responses of mentoring programme participants per se were insufficient to evaluate the mentoring programmes within his research. This is because of different levels of response to

invitations to discuss the programmes. Dawson suggests that this might be due to participants undertaking a cost-benefit analysis on the best use of their time and proposed using an online form to improve the model (Dawson, 2010). This research included most mentors in the initiative and most of the CCTs based at one CPTC. In addition, the research included examination of local documents and access to participant observation information over several months.

To enable a fuller and more directly evaluative account of the initiative to be presented it would be necessary to

- have a range of performance data with which to compare changes over time
- have access to CCTs from other colleges (and specific senior staff, particularly DPOs), including participant observation via mentors
- revisit CCTs (and DPOs) after the initial data collection phase to establish the extent to which any impact has sustained and in what way
- analyse the themes and issues which arise from mentors' reports which are part of the regular work product of the initiative

5.4 Contributions to theory and implications for policy and practice

The results of the study point to areas of theory to which it contributes and aspects of local, national or international policy where changes would improve the quality education offer to the primary sector (teachers, pupils and teacher educators) in Uganda.

Contribution to the theory of mentoring

This study sought to understand mentoring through describing it as there were evident challenges in defining it. To describe mentoring included mapping the mentoring initiative against sixteen elements of a specific framework. It also included talking directly to mentors and CCTs, reporting or observing their work and understandings. The study demonstrated that, in line with the literature review, the ground of mentoring is neither settled nor uncontested (Dawson, 2014; Kemmis, et al., 2014). Various conceptualisations of mentoring are evident across the mentor and CCT groups. The CCTs, who present as a group which has a broadly similar national culture and educational history, hold similar notions to each other of what mentoring is and how it is manifested. The mentor group shows much variation in its understanding and representation of the mentor and the mentor role. This may be a function of the range of different national cultures and education systems and experiences of the mentor group. It highlights challenges about the transferability of mentoring across professional boundaries (Fletcher, 2012; Baingana, et al., 2010; Sundli, 2007). Variations in CCTs' and mentors' conceptualising of mentoring emphasise the overall picture of mentoring as a fluid concept. These variations suggest that standardisation of experience (about mentoring) might lead to standardising mentoring conceptualisation.

The notion of mutual journeying, travelling on a developmental or revelatory path, within the mentoring relationship (Fletcher, 2012) or of securing individual growth are implicitly upheld in this study. As a group CCTs' prior expectations of the initiative had

been minimal, low or connected with a resource benefit. CCTs' experience of the initiative and of a mentoring relationship identified unexpected personal professional growth and the potential for continuing improvement. Mentors came with a range of expectations and with a security in their own professional skills. Even as they express their frustrations they also acknowledge the learning which they have gained and the potential for the work to bring about improved practice for a number of education professionals.

Kimball (2015) understood the mentoring relationship as one which was inherently about non-coercive agency and which was voluntarily entered into by both parties. In this study, mentors and CCTs identified a range of mentoring functions, how they were operationalised and to what extent there was success or rewards from the mentoring initiative. Yet CCTs were not able to choose to be part of the mentoring process, they were part of it by virtue of their colleges being selected to be within the initiative. Also, mentors were not part of selecting or agreeing mentoring partnerships, they were placed at a CPTC. The voluntary but not the informal nature of the mentoring relationship is challenged in this study. If mentoring were only to be enacted in voluntary settings then a finding of this study might be that mentoring was not occurring in the initiative, except informally. Yet CCTs understood themselves to be mentored and most mentors agreed that they were fulfilling mentoring functions in their placements. This suggests that mentoring can be effectively undertaken even where the mentoring relationship is not voluntary but implicit, flexible, loosely defined and informal. This is fully in line with Bozeman & Feeney (2007) who presented the

possibility of an informal mentoring relationship which is developed through a formal organising structure.

Some representations of mentoring relationships were not essential: the classical older more experienced mentor and the younger less experienced protégé (Kram & Ragins, 2007) may have happened in the initiative but it was not a prerequisite and could be considered as a problematic to secure. The study showed that there was broad parity in professional seniority but that is not the same as experience nor is a proxy for age. There is a challenge to the mentor and their role in securing change agency if they are not able to bring about improvement. The knowledge of context (Baingana, et al., 2010) and clear professional expertise (Sundli, 2007) allow for the mentor to be a powerful, transformative figure. In an intercultural setting, the notion of experience must be differently circumscribed. It may limit the ability of the mentor to guide, protect and prepare a protégé (Baron & Morin, 2009).

Contribution to knowledge about mentoring in practice

This study contributes to knowledge about mentoring in practice in three respects. Firstly, through its application of a specific mentoring design and specifying framework and applying in an intercultural setting, taking into account prior information and mentoring activity in practice. This extends the use of the framework in ways which allow for early adaptations to mentoring initiative planning, to informed consideration of the experiences of participant groups within mentoring initiatives as the mentoring work is implemented, and to evaluation of the work in practice by different

constituencies. Secondly, through identifying that the key to the progress of the work on the ground was the well-drawn construction of the skills, experiences, qualifications and outlooks required of volunteer educators to put into place an initiative which would be customised at local level. The international priorities for the mentoring initiative (e.g. MDGs) were not a feature of local considerations. Thirdly, through its focus on the foreign volunteers within a pre-existing education context where it finds that the various expectations of the participant groups differ from each other; that the key to the initiative being able to continue was the flexibility written into volunteers' and person specifications and adherence to that during the recruitment process; that initiative expectations, work and success are contextually as well as culturally embedded

Policy

Policy points are given in the context of this being a case study based on qualitative data.

International policy: implications are centred around the work utilising foreign nationals with specialist skills. These are to:

1. Establish shared parameters for intercultural mentoring practice.
2. Thoroughly review the feasibility, transferability and match of a specific or innovative pedagogical approaches or education interventions.
3. Takes steps to ensure that all parties to cross- or intercultural interventions or initiatives are guided towards shared and agreed meanings of key aspects of the work. Establishing this or re-establishing this in the field risks losing

momentum and leaves scope for fundamental misunderstanding of the intent and of the operationalisation of the initiative.

National policy: implications for Uganda are to:

1. Secure the future of the CCT role as a feature in the national education structure due to their centrality in supporting education development in the primary sector.
2. Ensure that CCTs' catchment areas are capable of being supported by a single CCT (continue the review of CC areas).
3. Address the relative lack of training on pedagogy for teacher educators in their higher professional training courses.

Local institutional policy: relating to CPTC level are to:

1. Promote teaching without blame at all levels as a means of encouraging openness to advice and guidance on teaching and other aspects of teaching practice.
2. Ensure dependable and transparent access to timely funds to enable a continuous education programme.
3. Improve resources which CCTs can use in their daily work (consumables and ICT).
4. Encourage the continuing personal professional development of CCTs.

Practice

International practice: provide full and thorough induction of foreign nationals into the professional context of the placement country.

Local institutional practice implications are centred on the CPTC and its activities in its catchment areas. There are three:

- DPOs to take a more pro-active role in outreach work with CCTs
- CCTs to be supported in securing regular and repeated access to all the schools for which they are responsible
- CCTs to be supported in their agency in improving the quality of primary education

Individual practice: mentors to establish and monitor at intervals the expectations of CCTs and others nationals prior to and while developing in-country work.

5.5 Dissemination of research information

The research in process has been presented in two professional conferences: British Educational Research Association (BERA) Annual Conference³⁷, September 2015 and COMPARE student conference³⁸. This form of dissemination of aspects of the work will continue, particularly through professional conferences and seminars. An abstract of a paper entitled, 'Using a mentoring framework: expectations, roles and rewards within a teacher educators' improvement programme in Uganda' has been submitted for

³⁷ 'Doing something different: Developing teacher educators in Uganda using a mentoring approach', BERA Annual Conference, Queen's University, Belfast, 13th September 2016

³⁸ 'Straight lines and satnavs: whose field is it anyway?' BAICE Student conference, UCL, Institute of Education, London, 6th June 2016

consideration for the 2017 BERA Annual Conference.³⁹ Themes which might be taken forward include operationalisation of mentoring in a Uganda higher education context, perspectives on the volunteer as change agent, addressing professionalism in an under-resourced context, the researcher in the field (context, interculturality) and using a mentoring framework to understand presentations of mentoring. Journal articles are envisaged to be submitted to BERJ⁴⁰, COMPARE⁴¹, International Journal of Educational Development, and Mentoring and Tutoring: partnership in learning. All research participants except one, (who declined the offer) will be sent a summary report.

5.6 Further research

The two main innovative areas which the mentoring initiative covered were the use of mentoring as a professional improvement strategy with teacher educators in Uganda's primary education phase, and the use of resident foreign technical specialists to assist in effecting change and improvement. In this context, additional research is required in:

1. The preparation of foreign nationals for in-country specialist volunteering and related induction.
2. The impact of resident foreign technical leaders on the professional confidence of national professional colleagues.

³⁹ 5th – 7th September 2017, University of Sussex,

⁴⁰ British Education Research Journal, BERA

⁴¹ Journal of Comparative and International Education, BAICE

3. Perceptions of volunteering as a valued activity in Ugandan social and educational settings.
4. Responses to women's technical leadership in male-dominated educational settings like Uganda.
5. Relevance of acculturation and language use in intercultural education initiatives.
6. Accessible and supporting behaviours: developing non-blame working relationships and working practices.
7. The skills, knowledge and understanding required of CCTs for tomorrow's primary education system.
8. Securing and developing technological skills in teacher educators located in remote places.
9. Transferring education and teaching practices to a broad range of contexts in the Ugandan primary education sector.

5.7 Reflective evaluation of the study

Impetus for the research

The research topic was chosen because of my personal concern with being able to do a volunteer placement properly. It centred around the intent and meaning which I had perceived in the post that I thought that I had come to Uganda to fulfil, that of teacher educator, and the title of the role that I found, on arrival, that I was to work to: mentor. This led me to explore what a mentor might be in the Ugandan primary teacher education context and what mentoring might look like in that context. I

wanted to elicit other mentors' views and the views of CCTs, who were the main target group for the work.

Research purpose

The research sought to discover how mentoring was being conceptualised by UNICEF and why. It sought to discover mentors' and CCTs' interpretations of mentoring work and their part in it. It sought to check whether the work which I was doing, as a mentor, was perceived as mentoring by the CCTs with whom I worked, and, if so, in what ways. I wanted to be able to identify what was important to know and to convey to participants in similar programmes so that they may be better prepared to make best use of available resources and time. I wanted to understand whether the mentor title mattered when it came to getting the work done by mentors on placements in the Core Primary Teachers Colleges in Uganda.

Research design

The research was designed as a qualitative case study encompassing at its core semi-structured interviews with colleague mentors who were based in CPTCs across Uganda and the cohort of CCTs who were based at my own college. Contextual and explanatory information was gathered from local documents and through participant observation and through semi-structured interviews with several individual senior educationalists working in Uganda. Between September 2012 to January 2014 interviews were conducted at several sites in Uganda. All participant observation took place in Uganda and contributed contextual depth to the data from the interviews. As a case study, the presentation of the research is intended to illuminate and to deepen

knowledge and understanding about teacher educators and their work in Uganda, and the kind of interchanges which are had with the outsider, in this case, volunteer teacher educator/mentors from several different countries. It was also a means of helping me to understand where I was situated in my experience as a newcomer to the Ugandan education system.

Research tools

The research used a mentoring programme framework (Dawson, 2010; 2014) to organise outcomes of content analysis of local documents and of CCT and mentor semi-structured interview transcripts. NVivo was used to organise and manage data. The elements in the mentoring framework were grouped. Those framework elements which demonstrated the least homogeneity across the three contributing data groups were explored further. This brought forward discussions about objectives, resources, tools and rewards and highlighted some organisational and structural features which affected the way in which the mentoring initiative progressed. Personal and professional relationships and funding expectations were also considered as themes which permeated through CCT and mentor data.

Research focus

The research was designed to focus on a mentoring initiative on the ground. The boundaries of the enquiry were intended to reflect this. While being concerned with the mentoring initiative which was originated by UNICEF (working with national governments at sponsor and donor levels) and with VSO (responsible for recruitment) the research was not about NGOs or about government. The work of the initiative could be located within a development remit but the research was not intended as an

evaluation, nor can it be considered to be one. The initiative was innovative in seeking to use mentors and mentoring to bring about change and improvement in educational practice in Ugandan primary teacher education. The voices, views and insights of individual CCTs and mentors was the main interest in this in the mentoring initiative.

Appropriateness

The research approach and methodology used were appropriate to the place and research subject. They allowed for flexibility and bounded access. As an example, CCTs would not usually be called for an individual interview about their work. Clarity of the purpose for the interview and a growing history of working together allowed the interviews to take place with increasing openness and relevant disclosure.

The case study approach allowed for the researcher's knowledge of the research setting to be enhanced by rich, descriptive, explanatory and narrative data which came from the mentors and the CCTs. Because the study was conducted by a single researcher, two types of personal concerns had to be addressed: firstly, the relationships with colleague mentors and the relationships with colleague CCTs. With some colleague mentors, our first exclusive conversation was within the interview context. Secondly, I had to accept that, if my mentoring work was unacceptable to individual CCTs I could find access to CCTs (for their interviews) either unduly difficult or unduly uncomfortable, even if they agreed to meet.

Amendments

A retrospective look at the research suggests some aspects could profitably be changed. These are limited in their application by some entrenched situations which can be overcome but might not fare well in a formal cost-benefit analysis. The change areas are to do with access to relevant Ugandan academic literature, re-visiting participants' responses, presenting work in progress, working with colleague mentors and expanding the CCT participant group. It was difficult to get access to relevant academic literature for the research focus particularly while I was in Uganda. Efforts to network with academic individuals instead of academic institutions would improve the research.

There was high coverage of CCT and mentor cohorts. The conditions of the initiative meant there was little scope for development of each interview with the person involved. Returning to some participants to follow up specific points would be constructive, particularly because there were so many contexts which were involved in the work. A further possibility would be presenting working papers either in the termly review meetings (mentors and other stakeholders) or the monthly development meetings (CCTs and the senior education staff from the college and its catchments area).

I have no means of knowing the extent to which the CCTs with whom I worked were representative of the CCT cohort nationally. They were subject to transfer and redeployment so had had, and might yet have, experience of other colleges and their catchment districts and municipalities. My reservations about working with CCTs in a

college other than my own were to do with access and the view into colleague mentors' work at first hand. If the research were to be repeated, with a similar organisation, then seeking additional mentors to carry out similar semi-structured interviews with CCTs at other colleges would be an interesting addition to the dataset, interlocking the research with the mentoring work, possibly recasting it as action research.

While I returned to Uganda for two weeks in April 2015 and was able to meet with many of the people with whom I had worked in the placement, this was not a planned aspect of the research. It was a valuable opportunity to ask questions about progress of the work. With an initiative like the mentoring programme, having a planned visit of the research site some years after the initial stage of the intervention would be advantageous. This would allow for an investigation of the sustainability of the intervention, capacity building and the intervention's impact on the quality of education and outcomes in primary schools.

5.8 Conclusion

CCTs did not initially see themselves and their professional or personal development as a core aspect of the mentoring initiative. They did not see themselves as the primary unit of improvement, as the focus of the mentors' professional attention. I conclude that CCTs' misunderstanding about what the mentoring initiative would bring (resources, funding, a monitoring function) and to whom (college, schools, themselves) led to a great deal of confusion over its implementation. My proposition is that

because CCTs saw the aim and the potential practice of the mentoring programme as not being focused on them they first operated as if this were indeed the case. This was further complicated by their previous experience of foreign volunteers which resulted in low expectations of either joint work happening or improvements occurring. From the CCTs' own evidence, the mentoring work of the initiative (working together, developing together, transparency) gradually revealed itself and they were able to take benefit from it. Moving from a state of low expectations about the change or improvement that would arise from joint working and expectancy meant that the initiative took longer to embed. This has implications for the way in which such initiatives are introduced and implemented with the target group, particularly when they are experienced colleagues in the Ugandan education system. It has implications for operationalising professional development interventions in contexts where there is intermittent resourcing or a low level of resourcing for prolonged periods. It also has implications for the sustainability of such initiatives.

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Appendix 1: the mentoring initiative priorities

The initiative has undergone one main revision and a mid-project proposal was produced.

The original proposal set out seven quantifiable key result areas for the work programme plus one key result area which is specific to early childhood development. Five of these key result areas were the subject of mid-programme cross-regional review meetings. They are:

- In 2860 schools reached by 286 Centre Coordinating Tutors (CCTs) supported by the mentors, the % of pupils passing PLE at D1 rises by 3% and D2 by 3 % (average for all schools) by 2014
- Drop-out rate in 57 districts in the catchment areas of 12 Primary Teachers colleges (PTCs) covering 8,957 schools declines by 3% from 2010 figures by 2014
- Teachers and head teachers' absenteeism reduced in the 2,860 supported schools by 7% from the initial assessment by 2014
- Of the 2,860 schools supported, the % that started serving lunch increases by 3% by 2014
- Proportion of schools supported where qualitative assessment indicates eradication of corporal punishments increases by 10% by 2014

The mid-project proposal added three features to the work:

- stating that each centre coordinating tutor (CCT) should work with 10 schools on mentoring initiative implementation and development
- some joint working with USAID on strengthening school management committees (SMC) and school monitoring in mentoring initiative schools
- the use of video as a means of capturing and improving teaching practice.

Appendix 2: the CCTs' role

The 2013 education and sports sector review (ESSR) listed the roles of the CCT as:

- Planning and co-ordinating
- Mentoring and support
- Community mobilization (sic) and sensitization (sic)
- Need assessment
- Teaching
- Guidance and counselling
- Materials resource development and management
- Awareness and sensitization (sic) (MoES, 2013)

The MoES (2013) identified the tasks which comprise the mentoring and support element of the CCTs functions quite thoroughly. The tasks which were ascribed under the 'mentoring and support' heading in the document cited above are:

- a. 'Supports the PTE in-service students and headteachers in the self study module reading, ensuring that each module is read and completed in time.
- b. Plans and organizes PDMs for the teachers and headteachers to discuss issues identified from self study reading and problems encountered during reading.
- c. Plans and provides professional support to qualified primary school teachers and head teachers through mentoring.
- d. Administers tests and keeps records of continuous assessment/achievement tests for In-service students in a given catchment area.
- e. Facilitates the primary teachers to make teaching/learning aids.
- f. Tenders advice on utilization of UPE funds for improved education quality.
- g. Facilitates the enhancement of UPE programs.
- h. Facilitates the implementation of interventions in education by offering professional support to those implementing them.
- i. Helps head teachers to reflect on their day-to-day teaching/management work.' (MoES, 2013)

Appendix 3: CCT workload and support

CCT WORKLOAD AND SUPPORT	
WAYS WORKLOAD HAS INCREASED	WAYS SUPPORT HAS DECLINED
CCT average # of schools exceeds 25, with many over 30. Original intent was to have CCT cover 15 to 20 schools	Fuel cost 80,000/= per month in 1998, today the real value of this, given the rise in petrol is 60,000/=
There are a great number of private schools that have grown up in urban areas, many not registered. CCTs are expected to provide support for these schools	The motorbikes provided some years ago are aging, they have lower fuel efficiency and higher levels of maintenance and repair are required
The modules for head teacher management, and the modules for in-service training, are not available – this requires that all material now be copied from the CCT materials by trainees	Under SUPER CCTs received materials for teaching aids, and for producing training materials, notices. They must now purchase materials with their allowance
Initially, CCTs had secretarial support for the CC, to assist with typing and copying materials. They must now do this on their own, although some do not have typing skills.	Typewrites and cyclostyle equipment in a great many Centres is not working, and needs repair.
Activities directed from MOES departments (NCDC, Planning, UNEB, ESA) are carried out by CCTs, as well as national and district initiatives.	PTCs no longer have heads of department for Outreach support to CCTs, with the consequence that CCTs are not as well or frequently visited, supervised and guided.
CCTs are increasingly required to participate in the planning and activities of the District Education Office and School Inspectors – including monthly meetings, joint supervision, information gathering	

(Hartwell, et al., 2003, pp. 15-16)

Appendix 4: mentoring, coaching and the overlap

In the table (below) the terms 'mentor' and 'coach' are differentiated from 'traditional forms of training' (BEPS, n.d.) and then from each other. This presents mentoring and coaching as training methods with common as well as distinctive features.

AREA	MENTOR	COACH	COMBINED
FOCUS	Individual	Performance	Group performance
ROLE	Facilitator with no agenda	Facilitator with specific agenda	Facilitator with agenda but uses indirect influence to generate consensus on agenda with mentee
RELATIONSHIP	Self-selecting	Comes with the job	Comes with the job (mentors were assigned the responsibility by fellow staff members)
SOURCE OF INFLUENCE	Perceived value	Position	Position and experience
PERSONAL RETURNS	Affirmation and learning	Teamwork/performance	Learning/teamwork performance/improvement
ARENA	Lifelong	Task orientated	Task oriented: lifelong experiences with desire to improve and share

Appendix 5: ethical approval



The Open University

From Dr Duncan Banks
Chair, The Open University Human Research Ethics Committee
Email duncan.banks@open.ac.uk ⁽¹⁾
Extension 59198

To Pauline Lyseight-Jones, CREET
Subject *"Developing teacher educators in Uganda using a mentoring/coaching approach: a case study."*
Ref HREC/2012/#1271/Lyseight-Jones/1
Red form
Submitted 27 September 2012
Date 28 September 2012

Memorandum

This memorandum is to confirm that the research protocol for the above-named research project, as submitted for ethics review, is **approved** by the Open University Human Research Ethics Committee.

Please make sure that any question(s) relating to your application and approval are sent to Research-REC-Review@open.ac.uk quoting the HREC reference number above. We will endeavour to respond as quickly as possible so that your research is not delayed in any way.

At the conclusion of your project, by the date that you stated in your application, the Committee would like to receive a summary report on the progress of this project, any ethical issues that have arisen and how they have been dealt with.

Regards,

Dr Duncan Banks
Chair OU HREC

⁽¹⁾ please note the change in email address

Appendix 6: local documents used as references for document analysis

Final draft proposal (DES and ITIED, 2010)

Improving quality in Uganda primary schools using mentoring/coaching proposal (DES, TIETD, 2010)

PCA Standard Budget Template (Anon., n.d.)

Responsibilities of PTCs, districts, VSO/mentors [...] MoES, UNICEF (Anon., n.d.)

Terms of reference and qualifications/experience (MoES/DES, n.d.)

Volunteer placement outline (Busuulwa, 2010)

Appendix 7: CCT semi-structured interview schedule

A. Job situation

1. What is your job title?
2. What are the main duties in your job?
3. Please tell me what your typical working week looks like.
4. Taking each of your job duties in turn, how well do you think that you carry out each duty?
5. Thinking about your day-to-day work, what helps you to do the work? Prompt: resources/organisation/people
 - a.
 - b. Taking each item in turn, talk about why this is the case

B. Focus on terms: CCT

6. As a CCT, you are also expected to be a mentor. What do you understand by the term 'mentor'?
7. Thinking about your work as a CCT, which aspects of it would you call 'mentoring'?
 - a. Develop this point through discussion
 - b. Discuss the terms 'coach', 'teacher educator' and 'CPD' similarly

C. Focus on role: teacher educator/mentor

8. What do you think that my job title is?
9. Why do you think that this is my title?
10. Why do you think that I have this title?
11. What do you think [my] job is about?
12. What is [my] work?
13. [Partner organisation] uses the title 'initiative mentor'. In what ways, if any, does the title 'mentor' fit the job, as you have experienced it?

D. Impact of the work

14. Thinking of the last fifteen months how has the initiative work differed, if at all from what you had expected?
 - a. Discuss the points of view
 - i. the work from the CCTs' vantage point
 - ii. the work as undertaken by the teacher educator/coach
15. How has your work, as a CCT, been helped or impeded by the work of the teacher educator/mentor?
 - a. Helped
 - b. Impeded
 - c. Discuss – especially why these conclusions have been reached

E. Futures

16. What, if anything, did you expect the teacher educator/mentor to do in post which has not been done yet?

- a. Discuss – especially why this is the view and how it could have been/might have been organised

17. Do you think the initiative work, in this college, has the potential to improve:

- a. Your professional skills
y/n/maybe/dk
- b. The work of the head teacher of your model school
y/n/maybe/dk
- c. The work of the head teacher of your nine extended schools
y/n/maybe/dk
- d. The work of teachers in your model school y/n/maybe/dk
- e. The work of teachers in your nine extended schools y/n/maybe/dk
- f. The inspection of primary schools in your district y/n/maybe/dk
- g. The work of the college y/n/maybe/dk
- h. The professional skills of pre-service tutors y/n/maybe/dk

18. Are there any other points or comments which you wish to make?

- a. Note any points and comments plus any responses:

Aim to recap the responses from the interview as a check for immediate accuracy and clarity

Remind participant of the information sheet and the detail on that.

Date of interview: _____ Time: from _____ to _____ Place: _____

Appendix 8: mentor semi-structured interview schedule

A. Previous professional experience

1. Please talk about your work experience before coming to Uganda?
2. What aspects of your previous work experience did you expect to be of most use in your current post?
3. In what ways did you think that you would be able to use your professional skills?
4. What were the main reasons for your decision to take up this post?

B. Job situation

5. What is the title of your post?
6. What are the main features of your job description (or the main tasks in your job)?
7. Please tell me what your typical working week looks like.
8. Taking each of your job duties in turn, how well do you think that you carry out each duty?

C. Focus on terms

9. The title for this placement is sometimes teacher educator or international teacher educator or an initiative mentor. Which of these was the title under which you were recruited?
 - a) Teacher educator b) initiative mentor c) neither of these
 - a. If neither of these terms were used, note the term which was used
 - b. Discuss what each of the terms means – starting with the one which was used in the recruitment process
 - c. Consider if the titles
 - i. Have fundamentally different meanings
 - ii. Might have changed the decision to
 - i) take up the placement
 - ii) undertake the placement once in post
 10. The partner organisation prefers the term 'mentor'. The recruiting body prefers the term 'teacher educator'. Why do you think that this is?
 11. Thinking about the mentor role in particular, in what ways do you think it can be of use in securing the aims of the project?

D. Expectations and futures

12. What did you hope or expect to achieve by the end of your placement?

13. How successful do you think that you have been?

a. Discuss each element and consider evidence for each assertion

14. What, if anything, did you expect to do in post which has not been done yet?

b. Discuss – especially why this is the view and how it could have been/might have been organised

15. Do you think the initiative work, in your college, has the potential to improve?

a. Your professional skills

y/n/dk/maybe

b. CCT's professional skills

y/n/dk/maybe

c. The work of the head teacher of your model school

y/n/dk/maybe

d. The work of the head teacher of your nine extended schools

y/n/dk/maybe

e. The work of teachers in your model school

y/n/dk/maybe

f. The work of teachers in your nine extended schools

y/n/dk/maybe

g. The inspection of primary schools in your district

y/n/dk/maybe

h. The work of the college

y/n/dk/maybe

i. The professional skills of pre-service tutors y/n/dk/maybe

16. Are there any other points or comments which you wish to make?

a. Note any points and comments plus any responses:

Aim to recap the responses from the interview as a check for immediate accuracy and clarity

Remind participant of the information sheet and the detail on that.

Date of interview:

Time: from

to

Place:

Appendix 9: participant observation schedule

Event observed: **Location:** **Date:**

Name of Observer:

Episode	When?	With whom?	Observed outcome	Utterances	Classification
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					
5.					
...					

Appendix 10: coded CCT semi-structured interview schedule: John Aaron

¶95: I found that when I was in [a town] there was a teacher who was [HIV] positive and had given up. At first she didn't know what she was positive but after her husband died she took the test. She broke down - absolutely broke down. Into hospital, we visited. Back to school - [she was] isolated - but [I] visited frequently. [She is] now happy and doing her work very well. Providing friendship and support and even the one we mentored in [a village] mentored also but very happy now. If you just leave them you will find that somebody dies very fast.

¶96:
C. ¶97: Focus on role: teacher educator/mentor

8. ¶98: What do you think that my job title is?

¶99:

¶100: Volpcker

¶101:

9. ¶102: Why do you think that this is my title?

¶103:

¶104: When they posted you we were told we have been sent a Volpcker but with no details - like a Peace Corps - that we were not told about them.

¶105:

10. ¶106: Why do you think that I have this title?

¶107:

¶108: Volpickers: we got to know that these people are experts on a particular skill to support us on a particular skill.

¶109:

11. ¶110: What do you think [my] job is about?

¶111: I got to understand that you are a teacher educator. You guide other teachers to perfect them on their roles. That is what I think about you - you have come to support me in my role using your skills.

¶112:

12. ¶113: What is [my] work?

i) ¶114: Mentoring

ii) ¶115: Guiding and counselling

iii) ¶116: Supporting us to do the right thing - like the videotaping, like the computer skills, even in support supervision

iv) ¶117: Conducting of review meetings which were almost not there

¶118:

13. ¶119: [Partner organisation] uses the title 'initiative mentor'. In what ways, if any, does the title 'mentor' fit the job, as you have experienced it?

¶120:

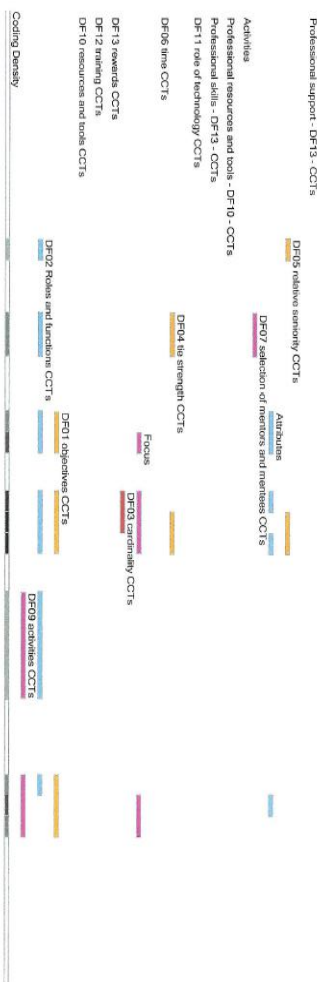
¶121: Before Childfair came in with the initiative with a mentor we heard about it but it disappeared completely but you have come to re-activate the aspects that are necessary in schools - majorly the teaching and learning and that is the key. Mentoring - it fits the job properly, it is not misplaced actually.

¶122:

D. ¶123: Impact of the work

14. ¶124: Thinking of the last fifteen months how has the initiative work differed, if at all from what you had expected?

¶125:



¶126: {You} have done a tremendous job. It is now sustaining it. Looking at the focus, teaching and learning, looking in the classroom - teachers get used to it and perfecting it.

¶127:

¶128: The teachers are encouraged to do their work in initiative schools as they know that there is support somewhere. It is quite different now - quite a number of people know to talk about the initiative.

¶129:

a. ¶130: Discuss the points of view

i. ¶131: the initiative work from the CCTs' vantage point

¶132:

¶133: At first, [it was] a bit difficult because of the attitude of people. [Now] we can move without too many problems, it is not difficult now as [I] have already set the ground.

¶134:

¶135:

¶136:

¶137:

¶138:

ii. ¶139: the initiative work as undertaken by the teacher educator/coach

¶140: I am happy with the work that you are doing, very happy.

¶141:

15. ¶142: How has your work, as a CCT, been helped or impeded by the work of the teacher educator/mentor?

a. ¶143: Helped

¶144:

i) ¶145: You have helped me to reach my head teachers, schools, SMC committee members. You are the one who has helped.

ii) ¶146: You have given me skills - computer, videotape, support supervision and mentoring

¶147:

b. ¶148: Impeded

¶149:

i) ¶150: You have not held me back

¶151:

¶152:

c. ¶153: Discuss - especially why these conclusions have been reached

¶154:

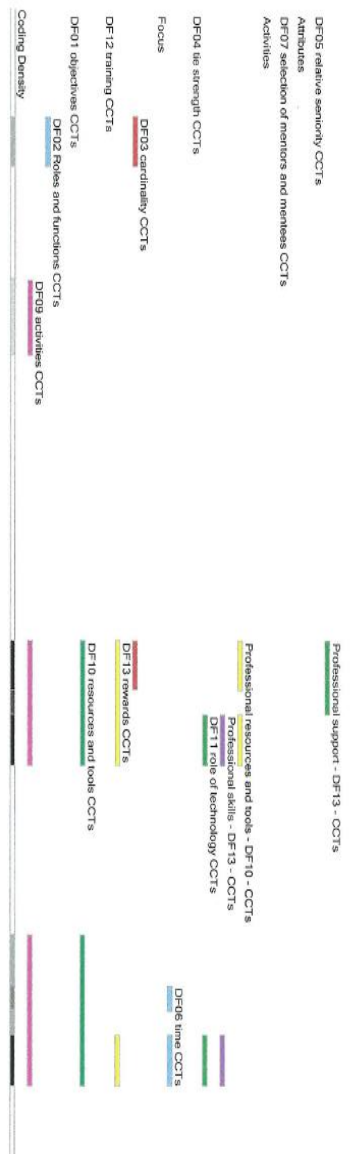
i) ¶155: The evidence that the teachers are enlightened on the initiative, SMC [are] trained.

ii) ¶156: Review meetings on the initiative - those are evidences of this.

iii) ¶157: Attended the workshops where I got the skills on the computer and on developing the newsletter.

¶158:

E. ¶159: Futures



Appendix 11: coded mentor semi-structured interview schedule: Dorcas

<p>¶81: The mentor role, I think, is that you - oh - a mentor, you don't do the job by yourself, you mentor people to bring the initiative - a mentor role is more [like] coaching, you help them to bring about things by themselves. The mentor role would be helpful for some parts of the initiative, including Indicator 4 [teaching and learning processes]. The word 'mentor' is very important as you help people to help [themselves]. At the beginning you help more then you take a step back as after two years (the length of the placement) [they] have to do it by themselves.</p> <p>¶82:</p> <p>D. ¶83: Expectations and futures</p> <p>12. ¶84: What did you hope or expect to achieve by the end of your placement?</p> <p>¶85: 1 I focussed on the observation for teachers - so teachers are more motivated by head teachers or deputies.</p> <p>¶86: 2 That in some schools there are changes or movements</p> <p>¶87: 3 That they remember what [self] has said about beating the children - remembering, [Dorcas] don't like that. I like her love to the children.'</p> <p>¶88:</p> <p>¶89:</p> <p>¶90:</p> <p>¶91:</p> <p>13. ¶92: How successful do you think that you have been?</p> <p>¶93:</p> <p>¶94: I am successful so far - they remember thoughts from me because they notice. My really success now is that they see really the [self], [not any more just] the mzungu in the village, they now understand the essence of myself and then work on the initiative teacher education programme.</p> <p>¶95:</p> <p>a. ¶96: Discuss each element and consider evidence for each assertion</p> <p>¶97: 1 Little bit - just started</p> <p>¶98: 2 Not yet</p> <p>¶99: 3 Beating the children - some success with a few CCTs - because I know some CCTs came to me and called, 'how can you order a classroom without beating?' and success with the tutors who take a message to students. In the village children come to [self] and sometimes I have to discuss with neighbours. I bring the real examples in real life - 'I don't like it that you pick carrots from my garden, you are hungry', the child laughs [and then we talk about it].</p> <p>¶100:</p> <p>14. ¶101: What, if anything, did you expect to do in post which has not been done yet?</p> <p>¶102: The whole, my, I expect that I did more work with the CCTs, that I stuck with the skills that is workshops. I haven't made my budget very clear. Also a reason is that I realised that I needed more time to settle myself. I set up myself very soon, the culture shock was not much, I thought I was settled and now, after nine, ten months that I am settled. I am the same [self] that I was in the Netherlands.</p> <p>¶103:</p> <p>a. ¶104: Discuss - especially why this is the view and how it could have been/might have been organised</p> <p>¶105: Not up to speed yet (see answer relating to 'settling' above).</p> <p>¶106:</p>	<p>Being a volunteer - DF01 - mentors</p> <p>Personal skills and attributes - DF10 - mentors</p> <p>Being a mentor - DF01 - mentor</p> <p>Success areas - DF01 - mentors</p> <p>Professional rewards and experiences - DF13 - mentors</p> <p>DF13 rewards mentors</p> <p>Other expectations - DF01 - mentors</p> <p>DF04 key strength mentors</p> <p>DF02 roles and functions mentors</p> <p>DF15 monitoring mentors</p> <p>DF10 resources and scale mentors</p> <p>DF05 relative safety mentors</p> <p>DF01 support</p> <p>DF05 relative safety mentors</p> <p>DF07 selection of mentors and mentors mentors</p> <p>DF12 training mentors</p> <p>DF09 activities mentors</p> <p>DF06 time mentors</p> <p>Coding Density</p> <p>DF03 capital mentors</p>
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¶107: The money, because I was very strict in this, same as [in] the Netherlands so do [not pay] from my own money or Childfair will expect it at all times. [There were] some CCTs at college but I did not enter the schools. I was strict.

¶108:

15. ¶109: Do you think the initiative work, in your college, has the potential to improve

- a. ¶110: Your professional skills y - in the end [of the placement]
- b. ¶111: CCT's professional skills y - I want to say, 'yes' so yes, I believe'.
- c. ¶112: The work of the head teacher of your [two] model schools maybe
- d. ¶113: The work of the head teacher of your eight extended schools n
- e. ¶114: The work of teachers in your two model schools y - yes, teachers are more motivated to learn. Not 100%.
- f. ¶115: The work of teachers in your eight extended schools n - before when I came there was the illusion of what can be done in two years. Now I think two, maybe one school per CC. [Maybe thirteen schools in all].
- g. ¶116: The inspection of primary schools in your district n
- h. ¶117: The work of the college y - they are really motivated - not the principal particularly but tutors - they are open minded - the pre-service and some CCTs who are doing the dual role
- i. ¶118: The professional skills of pre-service tutors maybe

¶119: Note: the mentor focuses on two schools per CC and the CCT focuses on a further eight schools.

¶120:

16. ¶121: Are there any other points or comments which you wish to make?

¶122:

¶123: No.

¶124:

- a. ¶125: Note any points and comments plus any responses:

¶126:

¶127:

¶128: Aim to recap the responses from the interview as a check for immediate accuracy and clarity

¶129:

¶130: Remind participant of the information sheet and the detail on that.

¶131:

¶132:

¶133:

¶134:

¶135:

¶136: Date of interview: 12th December 2012 Time: 14.00 to 15.00 Place: Kampala

¶137:

Attributes - DF01 - mentors	DF02 Roles and functions mentors
Being a volunteer - DF01 - mentors	
Personal skills and attributes - DF10 - mentors	
Other expectations - DF01 - mentors	
Success areas - DF01 - mentors	
Being a mentor - DF01 - mentor	
Funding - DF10 - mentors	
Activities - DF01 - mentors	
Personal benefits and expectations - DF13 - mentors	
Professional rewards and experiences - DF13 - mentors	
DF13 rewards mentors	
DF04 to strength mentors	
DF15 mentoring mentors	
DF10 resources and tools mentors	
DF01 objectives mentors	
DF05 relative seniority mentors	
DF07 selection of mentors and mentees mentors	
DF12 training mentors	
DF09 activities mentors	
DF06 time mentors	
Coding Density	DF03 cardinality mentors

Appendix 12: consent form for persons participating in a research project

This research is being undertaken as part of study towards a doctorate in education, through the Open University, United Kingdom

Developing teacher educators in Uganda using a mentoring/coaching approach: a case study

Name of participant:

Name of principal investigator:

I agree to take part in this project. The details of the project have been explained to me, and I have been given a written statement in plain language to keep.

I understand that my participation will involve semi-structured interview/Delphi enquiry. I agree that the researcher may use the results as described in the plain language statement.

I acknowledge that:

- (a) the possible effects of participating in this research have been explained to my satisfaction;
- (b) I have been informed that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without explanation or prejudice and to withdraw any unprocessed data I have provided;
- (c) the project is for the purpose of research;
- (d) I have been informed that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded subject to any legal requirements;
- (e) I have been informed that with my consent the data generated will be stored in secure, password protected electronic files and will be destroyed after five years;
- (f) if necessary any data from me will be referred to by a pseudonym in any publications arising from the research;
- (g) I have been informed that a summary copy of the research findings will be forwarded to me, should I request this.

I consent to this **semi-structured interview** being audio-taped ☐ yes ☐ no

I wish to receive a copy of the summary project report on research findings ☐ yes ☐ no

Participant signature:

Date:

Contact details: Pauline Lyseight-jones, XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX CPTC, P O Box XX, XXXXXXXXXXXX Uganda. Mobile phone number: +256 XXXXXXXXXX E-mail:

Doctoral student HXXXXXXX (Ed. D) registered with the Open University, Walton Hall, Milton Keynes, United Kingdom +44 (0) 845 XXXXXXXX, www.open.ac.uk

Appendix 13: schedule of mentors' semi-structured interviews

	Date of interview	Months in post	Length of interview (minutes)
1	29th September 2012	3	105
2	24th September 2012	24	75
3	4th November 2012	21	90
4	4th November 2012	11	80
5	4th November 2012	14	105
6	5th November 2012	5	85
7	5th December 2012	14	75
8	4th December 2012	11	60
9	6th December 2012	11	97
10	12th December 2012	10	60
11	10th April 2013	2	65
12	11th September 2013	9	50
13	13th September 2013	12	57
14	12th September 2013	20	60
14a	4th November 2013	22	150
15	5th November 2013	12	95

Appendix 14: schedule of CCT semi-structured interviews

	Date of interview	Years in post	Length of interview (minutes)
1	12th November 2012	15	100
2	12th November 2012	15	59
3	22nd December 2012	7	93
4	25th March 2013	16	47
5	9th July 2013	9	55
6	10th July 2013	9	70
7	11th July 2013	8	52
8	16th July 2013	16	86
9	17th July 2013	12	46
10	18th July 2013	16	73
11	22nd July 2013	16	70
12	22nd July 2013	16	78
13	3rd August 2013	16	126
14	5th August 2013	4	20
15	5th August 2013	16	75
16	4th August 2013	Two months (four months from letter of appointment)	94
17	14th October 2013	16	76
18	14th October 2013	9	61
19	14th November 2013	16	61
20	18th November 2013	13	30
21	22nd November 2013	8	60
22	22nd November 2013	3	60
23	29th November 2013	Eight months	61
24	29th November 2013	14	39
25	29th November 2013	13	54
26	30th November 2013	16	72
27	12th January 2014	5	59
28	9th January 2014	Not given	(truncated) 20

Appendix 15: communication modes and issues

The originally envisaged continuation of stages of the research via e-mail or via return visits to Uganda was, in the clarity of retrospection, unrealistic. This was because being within the structure of the placement (UNICEF, college, VSO) literally facilitated the research. The placement provided the means of getting to places, the funds to get there and well as having privileged access to the time of interviewees. I separated any interviews from work programme but could conduct some interviews in the field after the placement work had ended but participant observation meant simultaneously gathering research evidence while undertaking placement work.

It was not practical to plan return journeys to Uganda from England to collect additional information. The data gathering had to be done in country and could not rely on electronic links or the postal service. Had I more firmly separated data collection and literature search and review, several of the prospective interviewees [whether CCTs or volunteer professionals] would have been difficult to track down as they would have returned to home villages or home countries during the data collection period. My original work plan would have made any substantial data collection under these conditions unlikely.

As a means of communication, the Internet was not central to any of the local participants (Ugandan nationals) in the research aside from the two Ugandan national mentors. Relying on e-mails was unrealistic. Most CCTs had no local access to ICT facilities. None had personal access to ICT facilities. Most CCTs had little or no active and recent knowledge of using ICT for Internet communication. The college's ICT lab was broken, underused and had no Internet access. The power supply, to college and to the more rural localities in which CCTs lived was unreliable where and when it existed at all.

Local communications would have been untenable in writing. This is because postal services were weak and minimally used. Post office boxes were rented by institutions, businesses and those expecting post from abroad. Most personal homes have no official address and there is no home delivery of post. The most possible alternative to face-to-face data collection was using mobile phones. These are by far the most popular communication mode in Uganda, in my experience, aside from face-to-face oral transmission. Aside from the cost of communicating in this way, either internally or from outside of Uganda, the telecommunications networks are not reliable and, to address this, people who have phones may have more than one number – to try and secure access from different networks, depending on where they were. The development of mobile phone communication, its cost and unreliability mean that mobile phone conversations tend to be brief and whether brief or not, are conducted at a high decibel level. This had implications for privacy and for the confidentiality of any information offered: there might have been a deal of reticence about speaking candidly. As people generally wished not to carry the cost of a call, the mobile phone which rings is answered wherever it may ring, even when the person is presenting a session in a conference.ⁱ This had implications for attention spans, confidentiality and openness.

Mobile phones have to be charged and the mains electricity supply in Uganda reaches under 15% of the population (World Bank, 2014) and most of that is located not just in urban areas but in the capital city, Kampala. Generators and solar energy are expensive to buy and relatively little used in private homes and outside of the capital city. This lack of ready access to electricity results in phone conversations also being truncated through lack of battery power. Typically, phones were recharged from a trading centre where a period of charging time was bought. As the interviews with local colleagues tended to take between 30 and 60 minutes reliance on mobile phones for interviewing was not and is not practical.

Appendix 16: mentor projected placement workplan

Outline of Teacher Educators' activities during term time and out of term time

Amount of time	Term time	Out of term time
2 days a week	Observing and supporting CCTs facilitation of bi-monthly CPDs, workshops, school based training and support supervision at schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 5 days training for CCTs and DIS each out of term • Up to 5 days training for PTC tutors • Devising work plans • Report writing • Administrative work • Evaluation and planning meeting with MoES, programme manager and the other teacher educators. • Office administration, report writing, and planning training and support supervision, etc.
5 days per term	Training and support supervision to PTC tutors in their efforts to implement revised PTE curriculum	
1 day per week	Office administration, report writing, and planning training and support supervision, etc.	
20 days per term	Supporting DIS	
4 days per term	Training for CCTs and DIS to develop their technical capacities	

(DES and ITIED, 2010, p. 18; Busuulwa, 2010, p. 18)

Outline of Teacher Educators' activities during term time and out of term time: amended

Amount of time	Term time	Out of term time
2 days a week	Travelling with CCTs to schools, coaching/mentoring them as they support teachers to implement specific [...] standards. Also, observing and supporting CCTs' facilitation of bi-monthly CPDs and workshops at the CCs for headteachers and teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 5 days training for CCTs and DIS each out of term • Up to 5 days training for PTC tutors • Devising workplans • Report writing • Administrative work <p>Evaluation and planning meeting with MoES, programme manager and the other teacher educators.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Office administration, report writing, and planning training and support supervision, etc.
5 days per term	Training and support supervision to PTC tutors in their efforts to implement revised PTE curriculum	
1 day per week	Office administration, report writing, and planning, etc.	
2 days per term	Travelling with inspectors to schools, coaching/mentoring them as they monitor teachers' efforts to implement specific [...] standards.	

Appendix 17: edited extract from mentor interview schedule 3a: first annotations

Schedule for semi-structured interview: teacher educators/mentors

Previous professional experience

3. In what ways did you think that you would be able to use your professional skills?

I expected to be addressing groups of teachers in the training college and groups of inspectors and senior inspectors. I expected to be much more led by the people on the ground. I expected them to say that they wanted more skills in X, Y, Z. I was prepared to be flexible and that I would have personal responses.

4. What were the main reasons for your decision to take up this post?

For years I had hoped for an opportunity for a very different cultural experience. Going to England [to teach] was different but I wanted to go to somewhere in a Third World context. I postponed it – financial – so waited until early retirement. I did it for myself. I hoped to offer something in Africa or Asia.

A. Job situation

5. What is the title of your post?

I call myself a teacher educator. It is my preferred title, I think. Sometimes I use international teacher educator to enhance the status. Sometimes I am called Volpicker but I don't like it. I don't like being called 'the Volpicker' I am rarely called 'mentor' or 'teacher'.

6. What are the main features of your job description (or the main tasks in your job)?

In practice they have turned out to be working alongside CCTs and addressing class teachers in the areas of English and mathematics. To a small extent I work with the district, inspectors, college administrators but this is extremely limited.

7. Please tell me what your typical working week looks like.

On Mondays at about 8.30am the driver turns up and we drive to a school which can be between 1 – 2 hours away from home. I work in school from 10.30 to lunch then to 3.30pm. Then I depart to a hotel, a local hotel, the same hotel on Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday. I work in the school on Thursday and on late Thursday I return to college. And on Friday I do admin.

8. Taking each of your job duties in turn, how well do you think that you carry out each duty?

[Long pause].

[Working with CCTs]: this is a satisfactory element of the job. Aiming to approach the CCTs with respect for their expertise and I try to incorporate their points of view. But in practice I have to do much leading and they are happy to be led. This may be the dominant activity but it was different from my expectations.

[Working with teachers]: in different ways sometimes directly working in classrooms and try to intervene. 'I model better practice than I have just seen.' I am honestly unsure how effective that I have been. The teachers are affable and in subsequent visits [to the schools] I have been disappointed.

[Working with inspectors]: [we do] workshops. [They] come late, leave early, get their hands on funds, smile a lot, [they] make the right sounds and right motions. They never subsequently approach [me]. [They] are not interested but are polite enough to pretend. [I have had] little or no influence on professional behaviour.

[Working with college administrators]: [I] have had good enough relationships with college admin. People. 'I have handled them respectfully and astutely.' I have had very little influence except subtly – time management, not cancelling things, CCTs modelling [my] behaviour, treatment of drivers... 'Tiny little rub off effect. But in the big way, not at all.'

[....]

B. Focus on terms

9. The title for this placement is sometimes teacher educator or international teacher educator or initiative mentor. Which of these was the title under which you were recruited?

b) **Teacher educator**

[Note: the participant at first thought answered 'initiative mentor, I think.' But further in the interview she decided that she had been recruited as a teacher educator].

a. **If neither of these terms were used, note the term which was used**

b. **Discuss what each of the terms means – starting with the one which was used in the recruitment process**

Initiative mentor: literally, you need to find out what [the structure of the initiative] is. A **mentor** is a teacher who **teaches** people about the [specifics of the initiative].

Teacher educator: it's a person who **upskills** teachers in the craft of, the art of the teacher.

International teacher educator: a person who **comes from a different country to upskill people** with the art of teaching.

c. **Consider if the titles**

i. **Have fundamentally different meanings**

I haven't thought about this. It could be interpreted differently from each other [...]

ii. **Might have changed the decision to**

1. **take up the placement**

'Hard to answer. In reality I **colluded** with the scheme, the plot, to bring us in under one official title. I **risked**, I **hoped** that I would manage. I **hoped** that we would have more guidance. I **translated the job into what fit me.**'

2. **undertake the placement once in post**

No.

10. The partner organisation prefers the term 'mentor'. The recruiting body prefers the term 'teacher educator'. Why do you think that this is?

It [t/e] probably has a **much higher status value**. I think, [when I report] back to colleagues [at home], I would gain more **approval, kudos**, it would give more status. **Teacher educator is general**. Initiative mentor is very narrow.

11. Thinking about the mentor role in particular, in what ways do you think it can be of use in securing the aims of the project (initiative implementation)?

Hardly at all. [...] I have put my concentration in mentoring CCTs on teaching and learning but in all the rest [of the initiative] proper toilets and so on that's more an inspector's role, in general terms, on regulation.

C. Expectations and futures

12. What did you hope or expect to achieve by the end of your placement?

I genuinely didn't know. I probably expected to achieve very little. I realised that as an individual my impact would not be very easy to measure.

I hoped to (1) build positive relationships with people, (2) [to] influence teacher's in a way that improves skills and attitudes to teaching and learning. I hoped, individually, to enable some children to learn a bit more. [3] first stage in a long, long pilgrimage to abolishing corporal punishment entirely.

13. How successful do you think that you have been?

Hard to know. (1) built up very good relationships with CCTs and colleagues. I dare to hope that there has been a positive influence but [I] can't quantify. (2) Teachers: I hope against hope that I have influenced a sizeable amount of individual teachers but a sizeable amount has ignored [me]. [3] the participant asked for corporal punishment to be included in the response. I have done much work. It hasn't been abolished but it is on the agenda and has moved in the right direction. They are now hiding the canes in my schools when I visit.

a. Discuss each element and consider evidence for each assertion

It was interesting when the guys from the [...] Embassy came. They gave me such an intensive grilling. They went to some of my schools, pushed me aside, then asked teachers, 'You did all of this in college. What is the difference?' Then they asked the children, 'what have you been doing?' Two children answered, 'Madam says she wants us to speak more English'. The second response, 'We are now a safe school. The teachers do not beat us any longer.'

The corollary is that a small amount of children has learned an extra amount. Note: the participant is able to go back to each school four times. It is more difficult to see change in children, as opposed to teachers, so the participant just hopes for change.

14. What, if anything, did you expect to do in post which has not been done yet?

Nothing as I didn't have very firm specific expectations.

I did things which weren't expected.

- a. **Discuss – especially why this is the view and how it could have been/might have been organised**

I built a classroom block. [...] Childfair knows nothing about this and it is tangible.

15. Do you think the initiative work, in your college, has the potential to improve?

[This participant saw a clear distinction between her own work (the work that she was doing) and initiative. She answered once for the initiative (left) and once for their own work (right)].

- a. **Your professional skills** a) n b) y
- b. **CCT's professional skills** a) n x 3 b) y
- c. **The work of the head teacher of your model school** a) dk b) maybe
- d. **The work of the head teacher of your nine extended schools** a) dk b) maybe
- e. **The work of teachers in your model school** a) maybe – a little bit b) y
- f. **The work of teachers in your nine extended schools** a) maybe b) y
- g. **The inspection of primary schools in your district** a) n – not a blind bit of difference b) n
- h. **The work of the college** a) n b) n
- i. **The professional skills of pre-service tutors** a) n b) n

16. Are there any other points or comments which you wish to make?

Viewed as a whole package, given that I am the end of the two years, it has been hugely worthwhile, rewarding and empowering experience. It's been wonderful and at the same time, because the canvas was so huge, because the job was so unspecific, and being led by people outside of the recipient audience it would seem that the effect is possibly quite small. The effect on me has been huge I am happy.

Appendix 18: edited extract from CCT interview schedule 11: first annotations

Schedule for semi-structured interview: CCTs

A. Job situation

1. What is your job title?

PTC tutor

2. What are the main duties in your job?

- Support supervision to teachers
- Carrying out community mobilisation
- Implementing government policies that directly affect the child in school
- Taking teachers through school and CC-based refresher courses
- Mentoring of the teachers to empower them to carry out their teaching with a difference – a kind of improvement
- Guidance and counselling – especially to children and teachers who may be facing problems in day to day life that may affect school
- Reports – to education office and CPTCs
- Attend meetings at the PTC, district and in communities

3. Please tell me what your typical working week looks like.

I always programme myself (referred to programming on the whiteboard in his office) – making an action plan according to the college programme and sub-county – this week/weekend World Vision – children's parliament 29th and 31st July – planning for an event – for feeding. World Vision – 5th August – Etop guest house – for training teachers on life skills. [As I came I saw him developing the resource, he notes].

4. Taking each of your job duties in turn, how well do you think that you carry out each duty?

- Support supervision: I would say it's about 50% - it's not good enough. I feel I could be doing much better than that. Possibly higher than that but problem is sometimes fuel to take me into the outreach. Last time I had facilitation was in March. Sometimes you have to use your own funds (thirteen schools in one day – taking advantage of World Vision funding – twenty minutes in each school).
- Community mobilisation: OK now (because same programme – World Vision – has parents' engagement in collaboration with the district – committed parents to make work plans to feed children.

- Implementing government policies: that one is just fair
- Refresher courses: it is also fair
- Mentoring: good (better than O.K.) – I have had a number of PGMs with the head teacher and we have gotten involved in visiting outreach schools in teams. That is at least that one that I am satisfied with.
- Guidance and counselling: fair
- Reports: up to date – good
- Attending meetings: very good (possibly slightly late but never missed any)

5. Thinking about your day-to-day work, what helps you to do the work?

Prompt: resources/organisation/people

a.

i. Resources

ii. Organisation

Self-drive and self-inspiration – always here in the station – staying at weekends and NGOs are helping.

Drawn work plans and I have made it known to the teachers when we will be meeting – (I have empowered them) – always – well attended.

iii. People

Broker through sub-county – I am part of the planning and technical committee and health centre.

iv.

b. Taking each item in turn, talk about why this is the case

i. Resources

ii. Organisation

Firstly being positive about the job alone makes you feel good – I am enjoying the outreach work as it gives me the opportunities to touch the lives of many people, communities, children and teachers. Also, I am resident here so I keep the weekends and wife – who teaches at here.

Teachers and work plans: good networking.

iii. People

iv.

B. Focus on terms: CCT

6. As a CCT, you are also expected to be a mentor. What do you understand by the term 'mentor'?

A mentor is a person who is there to help the others who are less experienced improve in their work.

7. Thinking about your work as a CCT, which aspects of it would you call 'mentoring'?

That is taking advantage of at least being more informed and through the level of attainment have gone through I am in a privileged position – re: teaching. I lead the way – I give them the technical knowhow.

a. Develop this point through discussion

I take advantage of our talking [resource] classroom – when teachers are here they form part of the messages. That way, I am trying to instil in them the value of having relevant messages in the classroom. [It] encourages children to take part in the classroom even incidentally and makes the classroom conducive and exciting [for] children to learn.

b. Discuss the terms 'coach', 'teacher educator' and 'CPD' similarly

i. Coach

A coach, I think, does more of drilling.

Own work?: Yeah, occasionally, if I want results then I have also to try and coach some people. [Like?] – a modern approach.

ii. Teacher educator

I think that is exactly where I belong. A teacher educator actually empowers the teachers to know the skills and all the techniques necessary to know that learning takes place.

For us we have sent to do outreach to follow in on PST work and we are then sent to see that they do not deviate. The teachers in the outreach tend to relax – doing on the spot visits, which are not communicated beforehand, so that you get teachers in their natural work.

iii. CPD (continuous professional development)

We would like always to get teachers to keep improving and that learning should not always remain static – using the notes [that they got] from [their training in] the PTC – so we put on trainings to make them more effective (brought back from workshops) especially from the ministry – have also needs assessment – plan alongside teachers needs with relevant CPD – teacher-led.

C. Focus on role: teacher educator/mentor

8. What do you think that my job title is?

Senior mentor/educator. We have found you so useful. We are just enjoying.

9. Why do you think that this is my title?

Me, I thought it was just an ordinary Peace Corps Volunteer – I didn't know you had come to make a difference – we thought you would be like any other overseas volunteer. They didn't think you would capture all our interest.

10. Why do you think that I have this title?

You have introduced us to a number of educational issues that have seemed obvious but in reality they have not been obvious. You know when someone says that they know but when you keep asking they get more and more confused.

[Cited 10 Tips...and looking at achievement not just the gaps – other than blaming – make him feel good about themselves]

11. What do you think [my] job is about?

At the centre of improving performance – both in the CCT and in all primary schools in the [college] catchment areas through programmes which are usually planned together, DEOs, inspectors, PTC tutors etc.

Jointly made work plans in respective CCs and doing outreach and holding district meetings and joint planned workshops.

12. What is [my] work?

- o Building programmes
- o School visits
- o Work plans – jointly
- o Workshops and facilitating the workshops to take place
 - Materials
 - Finance
 - logistics
 - refreshments and food
- o Mentoring – you are a senior mentor
- o Video shoots – reveal the situation on the group and [I] have used that to cause improvement in individual primary teachers worked with
- o Materials production – BRMS schools and non-BRMS schools. [Added: you know that is what is keeping us ticking and you think it is something very important and you are told that there is even no finance to get you back].
- o Organised ICT skills training and nearly everyone is at some level

13. [Partner organisation] uses the title ‘initiative mentor’. In what ways, if any, does the title ‘mentor’ fit the job, as you have experienced it?

Mentor:

You are head and above all of us with new methods of teaching and ways of handling children

You have got out the issue of corporal punishment and most schools are restraining their hands on using the stick.

[For us we have been always thought that to get a child to understand the only way is to commit a physical pain] – but you are a lead person in

most changes in [the town school]. Using [your] expertise to create a positive change in most of us. We are learning a lot from you.

D. Impact of the work

14. Thinking of the last fifteen months/two years how has the initiative work differed, if at all from what you had expected?

a. Discuss the points of view

i. The work from the CCTs' vantage point

As an individual, I didn't expect to do much. I have learned to work very collaboratively especially with district officers and CCTs because every time we get to the district we plan together and even to the school.

[Talked about a colleague CCT coming in the truck to join the visit to his CC and school]. We are not confined to moving – so that is a great achievement.

ii. The work as undertaken by the teacher educator/coach

We thought first that you were going to work first as an individual and that you would not involve us in your planning but you got so integrated into all the challenges that the outreach tutors as we were having. But you addressed yourself to most of these at CC-level, district and CPTC level. So you have been at the centre of all the networking.

15. How has your work, as a CCT, been helped or impeded by the work of the teacher educator/mentor?

a. Helped

It was hard at first for us to have meetings with the district but the initiative brought us together

Most of the literature that [] has been distributed to CCs as a result of shared work has assisted us a lot regarding: mentoring head teacher and other junior classroom assistants

[You] also involved teachers and school children in making newsletters

b. Impeded

The initiative? It has in no way hindered. In fact that question should not be there. It has enhanced my capacity to carry out my duty in a more effective manner. I don't see any hindrance.

c. Discuss – especially why these conclusions have been reached

I have also improved in most of my schedules of support supervision. I know what it means now and I know what to look for. I go into a classroom with a human face ready to share the challenges.

I have not seen in any way how you came to disadvantage me at all. I am registering improvement and in no way am I regretting being involved in [...] activities.

E. Futures

16. What, if anything, did you expect the teacher educator/mentor to do in post which has not been done yet?

I think I am satisfied in all that you have been doing. You have been pushing us in the right direction.

a. Discuss – especially why this is the view and how it could have been/might have been organised

You have given us lots and lots of professional mentoring so I am satisfied.

17. Do you think the initiative work, in this college, has the potential to improve

- a. Your professional skills y – yes, yes, yes
- b. The work of the head teacher of your model school y
- c. The work of the head teacher of your nine extended schools y
- d. The work of teachers in your model school y
- e. The work of teachers in your nine extended schools y
- f. The inspection of primary schools in your district y – yes, yes
- g. The work of the college y – ah, well, I think let's put it there 'yes' let alone for the stumbling blocks. Let's put them aside. We can still work.
- h. The professional skills of pre-service tutors y – very much, very much, very, very much

18. Are there any other points or comments which you wish to make?

I would like to say that I have benefited from the programme and [it] should be extended.

a. Note any points and comments plus any responses:

Explained the donor position to the participant

Appendix 19: mentor interview schedule 3a: summary note from first annotations

Summary notes: Mentor 03 (extract)

This respondent came into the placement expecting to support specific teaching skills development in English and mathematics. The placement represented a personal ambition to work in the 'Third World' and an opportunity to have a very different cultural experience. Retirement meant that the placement could be taken up.

The mentor expected to be working with college staff, inspectors, senior inspectors and people on the ground in schools. The lack of specificity in what was to be done and the hugeness of the overall task meant that the mentor chose what to do. The mentor put the initiative on one side except for the criterion on teaching and learning processes.

The mentor chose to do the work intensively, locating in an area for four days a week and doing administration for one day. The locus in the work in schools was observing teaching, modelling teaching and aiming to enhance children's learning.

The mentor believed that the work had relatively little impact except in relation to relationships which the mentor built carefully. Change or improvement did not necessarily follow. Inspectors would be polite and smile and then take the attendance money. Teachers were affable but on return visits nothing had changed. There was little influence evident in relation to college administrators. The mentor had not expected to have as a dominant activity the work with CCTs. The CCTs appeared to need to be led and were happy to be led.

[...]

This mentor did not claim the title of mentor but was recruited as a teacher educator and preferred that title. It was more general and was to do with upskilling teachers in the art and craft of teaching. An initiative mentor was only required to interpret the initiative and to teach people about it. The mentor used the title international teacher educator if they wished to gain more status.

This mentor expected to achieve very little, risked and hoped that they would manage. They felt that they had been a positive influence and that a sizeable amount of teachers and a few children had benefited. The effect on the recipient audience was seen to be possibly quite small but the personal effect was said to be huge.

Outside of the work, the mentor undertook activities which affected the local community directly, calling on funds from the mentor's circles in the home country. This was not known by UNICEF but the mentor saw this kind of action as tangible evidence of activity.

Appendix 20: CCT interview schedule 11: summary note from first

annotations

Summary notes: CCT 11 (extract)

This CCT is especially organised and accomplished. He lives within the community (as does his wife) and is an integral part of a number of civic bodies. He is active in working with other NGOs (as well as UNICEF).

Funding is an issue in terms of getting to schools – at the time of writing no funds had been received by CCTs to get out to schools since February 2013 – it is July 2013. Where there have been successes these have been funded by NGOs [cited one NGO funded activity whereby 13 schools visited in one day, 20 minutes per school].

This is the first CCT who sets out purpose for work linked with an aim for the children and a realisation that the training of teachers continues after school. He characterises the problem well (in line with UNICEF) – noting that teachers relax after they finish initial training and tend to rely on notes which they had taken during teacher training. This leads to their not being up-to-date or particularly effective.

CCT had also perceived the volunteer as ‘an ordinary PCV’ which speaks to limited expectations of the work of a volunteer. The prevailing version of teaching philosophy which the CCT had worked with was one which linked effective teaching and learning with using corporal punishment.

The CCT’s professional expectations of himself were relatively low but he became more ambitious as he learned new ideas and skills during the course of the initiative.

Appendix 21: mentor and participant constructed cameos

‘Patrice Schilling’: composite profile of a mentor

Patrice is one mentor amongst fifteen interviewed who have been drawn from several countries: England, India, Ireland, Kenya, the Netherlands and the Philippines. If Patrice is from the Netherlands or the Philippines she is likely to be in mid-career. If her home country is other than those two areas she is more likely to be late career in her career or retired. Having spent most of her professional life in education Patrice has strong primary phase experience, including management and advisory work. She is very likely to have worked with adult professionals in a supportive and developmental role and has skills in working in SEN. Patrice may have volunteered before, if so, she was likely to have had a placement in an African country.

Patrice can pull from her toolkit of experience her knowledge and skills of working with children in the classroom, of supporting teachers and of managing and having insight into the broader teaching landscape. Patrice expects to work with people, in a positive and supportive way, adapting her approach as necessary, on the way to building good working relationships. Patrice has specific practical skills in the primary curriculum especially English (reading) and mathematics.

‘Okurut John Peace’: composite profile of a co-ordinating centre tutor

‘Okurut John Peace’ is one of a team of thirty CCTs based at one CPTC. John Peace is a Ugandan national. He has had senior school posts and been a primary pre-service tutor. John Peace has been a CCT for between 10 and 11 years. Seventeen of his colleagues have been CCTs for 11 to 16 years, some having been in post since the inception of the CCT role. These colleagues are due to retire shortly as the retirement age is 60.

As a CCT John Peace lives locally to his schools. He knows the terrain and the people even if he is not able to visit schools as often as might be expected. He has also trained or assessed many of the teachers in his schools when they were students. This is because CCTs join pre-service tutors in assessing trainees’ teaching practice and in offering some lectures to the trainee teachers.

John Peace has often been called on to explain, introduce and monitor government educational policy and government/NGO education programmes across the catchment area.

Appendix 22: mentors: pre-placement roles

	Teacher	School manager (deputy head teacher/ head teacher)	Teacher educator	Other professional	Special educational needs	Previous volunteer
1	x (primary)	x				
2	x (primary)	x	x	x (counsellor, university lecturer)	x	
3	x (secondary, primary, early years)			x (secretarial, environmental disaster management, university lecturer)		
4	x (secondary)		x	x (senior manager CPD service)		
5	x (primary, middle)	x				
6	x (primary)	x	x		x	
7	x	x		x (education adviser, national school inspector)		
8	x		x			x
9	x (primary)	x		x (education adviser and policy maker, university lecturer, internal evaluator))		
10	x (primary, middle)			x (community worker)	x	
11	x (primary, secondary)				x	x
12	x (primary)			x (school based social worker, trainer)	x	
13	x (secondary) (primary)	x	x	x (FE lecturer)	x	x
14	x (primary)	x	x	x (teaching abroad)		x
15	x	x				

Appendix 23: mentors' prior skills for the work

		No. of sources	No. of references
Craft (professional) skills			
	Teaching skills including working with children	09	09
	Subject skills	02	02
	Knowing what works	01	01
Soft skills			
	Interpersonal skills - communication	05	05
	Mentoring skills	03	03
	Enthusiasm for education	03	03
	Flexibility	02	02
Experience with people			
	Working with adults including advisory work	06	06
	Working with children	03	03
Experience with circumstances			
	Management and administration	06	06
	Primary phase experience	04	04
	Working with NGOs and with other cultures	02	02
Other			
	Not sure	01	01

Appendix 24: range of CCT duties, self-identified

The range of main duties identified by CCTs shows four specific duties being cited by 20 of 28 CCTs. These are community mobilisation, continuing professional development, mentoring and coaching and support supervision.

	No. of sources	No. of references
Community mobilisation	20	23
CPD	20	23
Mentoring and coaching	20	24
Support supervision	19	19
Guidance and counselling	10	11
Promoting, disseminating and implementing government policy	09	11
Teaching	07	07
Teacher training	06	08
Co-ordination of education programme at CC level	06	06
Monitoring	04	04
Peer group meetings (PGM)	05	05
Meetings	04	04
Demonstration lessons	03	03
Professional support and technical advice	02	02
Office-based work	01	01
Reporting	01	01
Consultations	01	01
Working with children	01	01
Total no. of sources: 28		